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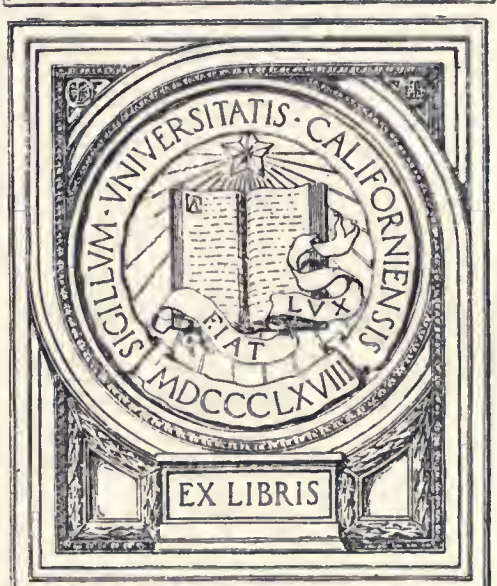
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Inspector of Schools,
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No. 7

METHODS OF SCHOOL INSPECTION IN ENGLAND

H. G. WYATT,
Inspector of Schools,
Rawalpindi Division.

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PREFACE.

THE publication in India of a work dealing with school inspection in England may appear to call for some apology. As the author states, the English elementary school is a very different thing from the village primary school in India. But if the writer has succeeded in drawing a faithful picture of a certain field of educational activity, he has accomplished his object, whether or no the lessons inculcated have direct bearing on Indian problems. Further, there is much in the present volume which will be of practical value in India. If the system in India is still far from having reached the complexity involved in European organisations, it has nevertheless begun to present problems, such as those of correlation and the functions of special inspectors, whose handling in England is here described. The history of inspection (and, one may add, of school instruction) has passed through similar phases in England and in India. India too has witnessed a revulsion from 'grind' and from examination; inspection has ceased exclusively to regard the pupil and the results of instruction and has tended to focus rather on the class and the teacher's methods. Some think that the pendulum has swung round too far and may learn from Mr. Wyatt's pages how rectification has been attempted in England. Again it may be objected that the lessons of the book can appeal only to a small band of workers—a band too whose efficacy and even the necessity of whose existence is sometimes questioned. Even if this were so, the objection would not be valid. But, as a matter of fact, there is much in these pages to interest the teacher as well as the inspector. The treatment of inspection necessitates some treatment of school organisation; and two of the chapters deal more with the latter than with the former subject.

H. SHARP,

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

SIMLA,
1917.

Introductory Note.

The following chapters convey impressions of the work and conduct of school inspection, mainly with reference to elementary schools, gathered in company of a number of English inspecting officers of every grade, and both of the Board of Education and of Local Bodies, during the months April to June, 1916.

Owing to the interruptions and disturbances in inspection caused by the war, I was unable to see formal inspection either of secondary schools or of training institutions; but I had the advantage of conversation and discussion with officers engaged upon inspection in educational institutions of every kind, as well as with headmasters of important schools, medical inspecting officers, and others. Amongst the many who went out of their way to help me, I am particularly indebted to Mr. F. T. Howard, Mr. H. Ward, and Mr. G. H. Grindrod, Divisional Inspectors in London, the North-West, and South-West, of England, respectively, Mr. T. W. Twentyman, for the use of books and rooms in the Board of Education offices, and to Mr. C. H. B. Dale, C.B., Chief Inspector of Elementary Schools, for so kindly making provision for my tours.

For the benefit of Indian readers I should explain that the English Elementary school is a very different thing from the village primary school in India. Though its pupils leave at 12 or 13 years of age (and sometimes earlier) its curriculum is far more ambitious than that of an Indian primary school, and it is staffed by teachers often of a level of education equivalent to that of headmasters or senior assistants in modern Indian High schools. Possibly the nearest approximation in the level of attainment aimed at is afforded by schools intermediate between the primary and high school in India, namely, the middle school of the Punjab. But no exact parallel exists. Certainly in its relation to the work of inspection, in the qualities it demands in an inspector, and in the appropriate procedure, the Indian High school has more resemblance to the English elementary, and to the local English secondary, school than the Indian primary school has to either.

H. W.

Methods of School Inspection in England.

CHAPTER I.

Historical Note.

1. Before 1860.

Inspectors of schools were first appointed in England and Wales in the year 1839.

Throughout English history education had been mainly in the hands of religious communities, which, with the growing recognition of the need for a more complete and thorough system of public education which characterised the nineteenth century throughout Europe, found themselves unable to satisfy the demand. Consequently the nineteenth century is a period in which the deficiencies of voluntary effort are being gradually made good by the State, which strengthened its control over elementary education in successive stages as the people and the religious denominations themselves became more willing or less reluctant to accept aid and a proportionate measure of control in a task to which the people as a whole in the person of the State was alone adequate.

Without direct legislative enactment grants to aid local effort in building schools for the poor were given from the Treasury as early as 1832. These were made through existing religious agencies, the most important of which were the National School Society (representing the Established Church) and the British and Foreign Bible Society (mainly Non-Conformist). The annual vote was at first £20,000, and not only was far from supplying the felt needs of the situation, but was not accompanied by conditions ensuring its economical expenditure.

In 1839 when the grant was increased to £30,000, a Special Education Department was created to supervise the work, comprising a special Committee of the Privy Council and a staff of officers, amongst whom were inspectors of schools.

The policy of the Government at every step which it has taken in developing public education, has aimed consistently at supporting and supplementing, rather than at superseding, voluntary enterprise. And it has recognised from the beginning the historical claims, as well as the actual advantages, of religion as an influence in any general educational system. There was indeed no practicable alternative, for what public education existed was—as it had always been—chiefly in the hands of the Church, a fact it would have been impolitic, if not impracticable, to ignore.

The mistrust and opposition which the idea of Government inspection of schools under religious bodies not unnaturally aroused was removed by the so-called Concordat of 1840—a Minute necessitating the approval of the Archbishop to appointments of inspectors of Church schools in his province. Later Non-Conformists and Roman Catholics received a like privilege for their schools. Thus it came about that in practice only clergymen—of whatever denomination—were appointed inspectors for Church schools, and inspectors were definitely urged by Government to encourage and foster religious teaching in all State-aided schools. This policy of suiting the religious denomination of the inspector to the schools continued for thirty years, during which period the number of appointments, only two or three in the first year, had risen to twenty-three by 1850 and by 1860 to sixty-two.

Except for a temporary establishment of a class of assistant inspectors about 1850, the system of entrusting the inspection of schools to a uniform grade of inspector continued till 1860, when under a Revised Code the manner and objects of inspection changed. At the time of the first appointment of inspectors the grants given were in aid of the provision or maintenance of school buildings, including also, after 1843, equipment and the building of training colleges. In 1846 the principle was introduced of making direct payments to teachers, both on account of pupil teachers in training under them and, under the name of augmentation grants, to trained teachers in proportion to the length of their training. And in 1853 a further system of capitation grants based on a minimum attendance was introduced for schools in rural, and afterwards in other, districts. There were thus three systems of grants at the time—building and capitation grants paid to managers, and additions to salary paid directly to teachers.

These years 1840—1860 may be taken as a first stage in the history of school inspection in England.

The general objects of school inspection may be conveniently distinguished as—

(1) Discovering school needs;
(2) Estimating school worth;
(3) Guiding school progress.

In practice emphasis upon the first two objects varies with the conditions of grants-in-aid; according, that is, as the award of grants is determined by the actual requirements of the school to bring it up to a recognised standard or by the educational merits of the school at the time, the policy of Government may be either to supply want or to encourage merit.

During the early years of inspection the first named was the object kept mainly in view. The objects of inspectors were mainly to collect facts and information and to report the result of their inspection to the Committee of Council (Minute of 2nd September 1839).

The chief purpose of Government in the early years of its interest in public education, before a really national system was created, was naturally to gain an adequate knowledge of the needs of the situation. The Inspectors were investigators, rather than active promoters, of education. The Government indeed was inclined to proceed the more cautiously in face of the mistrust of Government interference in institutions maintained by religious denominations, when the doctrine of *laissez-faire* was also part of the fashionable philosophy of the day. Inspectors of schools are accordingly cautioned 'not to interfere with the religious instruction, or discipline, or management of the school, and the grant is made to meet the necessities of the situation, not against any educational evaluation of the school as it exists.'

Within a few years however, the character of the inspectors' work underwent some change. When in 1846 the building grants were supplemented by grants made direct to teachers, the duties of inspectors expanded. Regulations were now framed making certain qualifications in the staff and standard in the teaching a condition of the new grants. It now became an inspector's duty to examine pupil-teacher apprentices, to hear all lessons given by them and to report upon the organisation, discipline and instruction of any school under a teacher claiming an augmentation grant. In other words the emphasis which had hitherto fallen upon the first object of school inspection—discovering a school's needs—now falls equally

upon the second, estimating (for grant purposes) the school's worth.

Already in 1846 the inspectors had been too few in number to pay even an annual visit to each aided school, and it became the more urgent, as their duties and the number of assisted and inspected schools grew, to enlarge the inspectorate considerably. Its establishment had risen from under twenty in 1845 to sixty-two by 1860.

After 1846 accordingly the inspection takes on the character of a modern school inspection, *viz.*, an intensive consideration of the organization, discipline and instruction of each school as it is visited. In other words the internal coudition of a school assumes an equal place with its external or material condition. Thus the briefly tabulated reports which have been preserved from dates prior to 1860 include observations on the topics which are commonly considered to-day, *viz.*, building, furniture, apparatus, registers, organization, discipline and instruction. In addition the fitness of the certificated teacher for training apprentices is especially noticed. These summaries of reports do not throw much light upon the actual procedure of an inspector in treating any particular school; though it is easy to construct a fancy picture. The inspection of the material circumstances of a school does not lend itself, however, to much variety, except in detail. And it would be superfluous to dwell upon the differences in standard of lighting, ventilation and general convenience, expected of a school between those days of amateur commonsense and the present period of scientific exactitude. An important question of that epoch, for instance, was not whether desks were properly graded for pupils of various size or shaped to support the small of the back, but whether they were sufficient in number and in good repair. The word organization did not appear to include, as now, the distribution of teaching periods in a time-table, or of work amongst the different members of the staff, but comprised only the *number* of classes into which the school was divided, (with a note as to any collective grouping), and the way in which the classes were seated—whether in the inspecting terminology the seating was quadrangular, rectilinear, semi-circular, or according to some other geometrical figure. The following are examples of a common type of entry—

(1) 'Organization, six classes the same for all subjects; shape, semicircles; collective groups for geography, history and grammar.'

(2) 'Organization, eight classes, shape squares, under one master and one assistant.'

(3) 'Organization, three classes, not the same for all subjects; shape, circular, under a mistress and an apprentice.'

In other cases the shape of the class is described as 'quadrangular and rectilinear' or 'parallel' or again in one case 'parallel and three sides of a square.' The inspectors of those days appear to have been satisfied provided the arrangement was an easily describable geometrical figure. As these tabulated reports were for the information of the grant-giving authority, the absence of remarks upon the time-table, upon the devices or methods of teaching and of suggestions for improvement, may not be specially significant.

Some light on inspection procedure is thrown by Matthew Arnold's account, written in 1863, of what he names the old system of inspection. 'The inspector,' he says, 'took a school class by class. He seldom heard each child in a class read, but he called out a certain number to read, picked at random as specimens of the rest; and when this was done he questioned the class with freedom, and in his own way, on the subjects of their instruction. As you got near the top of a good school these subjects became more numerous; they embraced English grammar, geography and history, for each of which the Inspector's report contained a special entry, and the examination thus often acquired much variety and interest.'

Though the context of Matthew Arnold's comment shows that he was considering one aspect of inspection only, it is probably safe to conclude that the inspection of those days concerned itself mainly with the pupils and their attainments, less with the teachers or their process of teaching.

The grant was given or withheld according to an evaluation of the school, including primarily an estimate of the standard of instruction. In a period before the process of teaching had been generally recognised as an art, capable of a variety of methods, and in which the mind of the pupil—so far as it was considered at all—was regarded as a receptacle for knowledge rather than as an instrument for using it, it was natural that the cultured gentlemen then chosen to inspect the schools—inexperienced as they often were in teaching—should estimate the instruction according to the quantity of the pupil's knowledge, and ignore his power of putting it to practical use; and, so far as the teacher was considered it was

rather his general personality, his reputation with his neighbours, his power of maintaining discipline and securing attendance, and his influence for bad or good that counted to his credit than any special expertness in teaching as such. The questions unconsciously before the inspector were, of his pupils, 'what do they know?' and of the teacher 'what is he like?' or 'how does he conduct his school?'

The plan of appointing only inspectors of religious denominations acceptable to the schools—invariably clergymen in the case of Church schools—affected to some degree the character of the inspection. Each denomination naturally wanted to secure the especial progress of the schools in its care and as full a measure as possible of Government aid. Inspectors tended to be chary of reporting unfavourably on schools of their own persuasion, and to select the good points for especial notice. 'An inspector,' says Matthew Arnold in his general report for the year 1854, 'is apt to be silent on imperfections lest a statement of them may unfavourably affect a struggling school, he is reluctant to disappoint a manager or estrange a subscriber, whereas one inspector should not conceal defects as an advocate for the schools, while another exposes them as an agent for the Government.' 'The inspection of a school is run,' he says, 'upon a plan founded when a far smaller number of schools were under your Lordships' supervision than at present, carried out into such detail as to afford every facility to an inspector, desirous to give a favourable report upon a school, for doing so, by enabling him to call attention to special points of detail in which the school may be strong, rather than to others where it may be weak, or to its general efficiency, which may be small. At present, for instance, an inspector finding an advanced upper class in a school, a class working sums in fractions, decimals and higher rules, and answering well in grammar and history, constructs, half insensibly, whether so inclined or not, but with the greatest ease if so inclined, a most favourable report on a school, whatever may be the character of the other classes which help to compose it. But it is evident that the attention of your Lordships is especially concentrated upon those other classes, and that an elementary school excites your interest principally as it deals with these, as it deals with the mass of children, who, remaining but a short time at school, and having few or no advantages at home, can acquire little but rudimentary instruction; not as it deals with the much smaller number, whose parents can enable them to remain long at school, to

pursue their studies at home, to carry on their education, in short, under favourable circumstances, and who therefore less need the care and assistance of your Lordships.'

That a probable consequence of assigning to schools inspectors of the same religious community as themselves is to divert the inspection from its proper object of exposing the defects in a school with a view to their removal no less than of revealing its excellences with a view to their encouragement is a point of practical relevance in India.

Matthew Arnold evidently thought that the existing system made for narrowness of aim in inspection and hindered the inspector from forming a simple judgment of the conditions of the school as a whole, based upon an inquiry into 'certain broad and ascertainable things; on the one hand, the commodiousness of the school buildings, the convenience of the school fittings, the fulfilment of the necessary sanitary conditions; on the other the competence of the teacher, the efficiency of the discipline, the soundness of the *elementary* secular and (in certain cases) of the *elementary* religious instruction.' Inspectors would not then 'occupy themselves in inquiring with what success the three or four head boys (sons, probably, of tradesmen in good circumstances) out of a school of a hundred or a hundred and fifty children, could work an equation, or refer words to their Greek or Latin constituents.'

2. The Revised Code of 1860.

The changes which were made in the Revised Code of 1860 affected considerably the spirit and manner of inspection. The commission which sat in 1858 found the existing provision of schools for the people tentative, unco-ordinated, indequate, and inefficient. And amongst the defects of the system was recognised a superficiality of inspection work, remarked upon by Matthew Arnold in 1854. The training of teachers had already been taken in hand as early as 1846, through a system of pupil teacher apprenticeship under a competent teacher in a school, supplemented by a course of study at a training college. It was found however that with the system of inspection in vogue the mere training of the teachers did not ensure efficiency in the school. Apart from its other purposes of extending the supply of schools, of improving attendance, and of further encouraging local and voluntary educational endeavour, the commission aimed at improving the instruction in schools and at making the estimate of a school's worth

depend upon a more thorough and comprehensive test than hitherto. In particular it was felt that a scheme was needed to extend the teacher's interest to all the children, to those in lower classes and of less intelligence, in order to counteract the tendency to select for special coaching a few privileged pupils at the top of the school. A more impersonal system of test would also withdraw the examination from the influence of local subscribers—it should no longer be diplomatic to give a little superfluous praise to the child of a local and wealthy tradesman. Accordingly the Code of 1860 which was based in the main upon the commission's report introduced certain important changes. The system of capitation based on attendance was modified by a condition, according to which, for two-thirds of the capitation grants, each pupil who made a certain minimum number of attendances was examined in the three R's, and the grant was calculated upon, and varied with, the number of successful candidates. At the same time the augmentation grants paid as additions to their salaries to certificated teachers and to teachers giving training were given up; all grants were now paid to managers only.

When they became aware of the dangers of the new measure the authors of the revised Code were careful to represent the examination test as an assurance only of the school's having reached a minimum instructional standard—once this was assured, the amount of the grant could depend upon other things besides the results of this test; for instance, the qualifications of the teachers and the general efficiency of the school were to be taken into account. The examination is to be only a part of the inspection—'inspection is the larger term, and includes a judgment founded upon an examination,.....and upon other particulars also.' The scope of the inspector's duties is stated to be little changed, and the grant to be made to each school depends, as it has ever done, upon the school's whole character and work. 'You will judge every school,' say the official instructions to inspectors, 'by the same standard that you have hitherto used, as regards its religious, moral, and intellectual merits.' In spite however of these well meaning cautions, the fact remained that in practice the bulk of the grant was calculated upon the results of individual examination and that each pupil increased or diminished the aggregate according as he passed or failed in the examination.

Besides this, the instructions to inspectors prescribed an exact procedure to be followed in the conduct of the examination, including the arrangement of the children, the mode of

dictation, the marking of the papers etc., and six standards of attainment were set for the respective classes. Those tests, it is to be added, included only the three R's, and in them were confined, in each case, to a very limited area. In arithmetic, for example, the test for standard VI is 'a sum in practice or bills of parcels'; that in reading for standard V is 'a few lines of poetry from a reading book used in the first class of the school'; that in writing for Standard III a sentence from a paragraph (from an elementary reading book used in the school) slowly read once and then dictated in single words.

It is not difficult to trace the effects of the new regulations upon the work of inspection.

The substitution for the old method of examining mainly orally a few pupils chosen at random from each class, of the new systematic examination of each individual pupil in three subjects, together with the entering of marks upon the schedule, compelled the inspector to spend much more time over this part of his duties than formerly; the more so indeed, as the number of inquiries and returns to which he had to give attention multiplied. If the inspector were to find time for the exercise of his own freedom in inspection it could only be by increasing largely the number of inspectors. This however had not been the intention of the Government. But even when this measure gave material relief, it did little to liberate the inspection from routine methods, for the simple reason that—whatever an inspector's ideals—the circumstances created by the Code were too strong for him. It will be remembered that the teachers no longer drew part of their pay direct from Government; they made their own bargain with the managers. Consequently they were thrown more into the managers' hands. And as the managers naturally wanted the biggest possible grant for the school, they held the teacher responsible for passing through the examination all the pupils he could. This meant an overpressure upon the weaker, and a corresponding neglect of the stronger, pupils in an endeavour to range all along a common level sufficient to secure a pass. And as the subjects of examination were confined to the three R's and to certain very limited subjects or acquirements within them, the teacher naturally restricted the studies of his pupils to them. Where the inspector had no time to spare, he equally was obliged to confine his examination to the subjects, and those parts of them, given in the schedule. But even if he had time for further examination, he could not expect to combat the general spirit of the school. Provided

the teachers had done their part in passing each pupil through the Government examination, to condemn the school and deprive it of grant for deficiencies, which the authorised official system of examination itself entailed, would have been inhuman and unjust.

The result of the new system accordingly was to degrade the inspection to a mechanical routine. The method of the inspector was practically prescribed for him—his individuality had no more free play than that of the teachers he inspected. And the schools inevitably tended to become uniform machines for producing pupils specialised in one or two intellectual tricks or acquirements. The new Code in fact really defeated its own object. It had aimed at correcting the tendency to judge a school's worth on an appreciation of a few bright pupils by spreading the examination over the whole school; and the tendency to idiosyncrasy of treatment by standardising the subjects of examination throughout. In actual fact however what the examination gained in range it lost in depth; it substituted a shallow and uniform test of all for an intensive and varied treatment of some—instead of appraising the many attainments of a few the inspector now investigates a few (prescribed) attainments in the many.

In such a case rule of thumb methods of inspection became inevitable—the test was necessarily expeditious and uniform, for in no other way could it be effected in the time or an even standard of judgment be attained.

A further obstacle in the way of forming a fair judgment of a teacher's work, or of the progress of different parts of a school, was presented by the fact that the pupils came up for examination by standards, not by classes. Pupils submitted for the same standard of test might come from different classes, with the result that the inspector no longer examined a class as a unit and could form no impression of its progress as a whole. The new system in fact diverted the inspector from his proper duty of estimating the school as a school, that is, as an agent for the general development and improvement of its pupils, by prolonging his concentration on a few points only. And the pupils in the top classes were now as much neglected as they had been favoured before. As their examination was also confined to a few elementary exercises in the three R's, clever pupils received no credit for any further progress of which they were capable in those subjects or in others, such as history, geography, geometry or English

grammar, while the teacher accordingly transferred his ministrations from the pupils who were safe to pass to the dullards in danger of failing.

3. 1870—1890.

The year 1870 witnessed the passing of an Act making provision for the establishing of school boards in areas where voluntary schools did not supply the need for schools, for the imposition of a local rate for the purpose of starting and maintaining schools and for the passing of by-laws, making school attendance compulsory. The Act in itself did not affect the prevailing main principles upon which the grants-in-aid to schools from the imperial exchequer were regulated, and the consequent methods adopted by inspectors in examining schools; but with the establishing of state schools not under denominational management the old system of assigning clergymen to inspect church schools, and lay inspectors approved by Roman Catholic or dissenting bodies for Roman Catholic or Non-Conformist schools, was given up. After 1869 the religious tenets of applicants for inspectorships were not considered, and no clergymen were appointed—inspectorships fell in the main to young men of good university degrees and accepted social status, and the country was divided into smaller inspection areas for the inspection of schools of all types, replacing the previous larger cross divisions on denominational lines. Moreover the inspector was in future concerned only with the instruction in secular subjects, the testing of the religious teaching being undertaken in Church schools, by diocesan inspectors appointed by the Church authorities 'ad hoc.' The Act also necessitated an increase in the number of inspecting officers. Already in 1863 the exigencies of 'individual examination' had led to the creation of an 'assistant inspector' class to help in the work of examining the pupils in the three R's, and by 1868 there were twenty-one assistants and seventy-five full inspectors. These assistants, intended for the largely mechanical work of individual examination in very elementary subjects, were men under thirty from the class of trained elementary school teachers, and were at first empowered only to examine pass or reject individual children presented under the school standards, and that in the presence of the examiner. The Act of 1871 somewhat widened their duties—a good deal of statistical work, the scrutiny of registers, revision of pupil teachers' papers and

the inspection of buildings, for example, were entrusted to them, their pay was raised, and promotion to a sub-inspector class to be afterwards mentioned was made possible.

The need for equalising the standard of examinations presented a difficulty, which it was attempted to meet by entrusting to some of the senior district inspectors the supervision over a number of districts. They were expected to check and standardise the questions and working of local inspecting officers, but in point of fact their efforts in this direction were not very effective. In 1871 there were seventy-six assistant inspectors, eighty-two inspectors and ten senior inspectors, and the present system of dividing the country into ten divisions, with usually some eight or ten districts in each, dates from this period.

The carrying out of the Act involved much executive work not directly educational, such as the drawing up of regulations for school board elections, dealing with applications for establishing school boards, or for building grants (from voluntary schools), returns as to the supply of schools in different districts, and so on. For this purpose 'inspectors of returns' were appointed, one for each district, often from men with a legal training. Many of these afterwards became ordinary inspectors, and as the Act came into normal working they ceased to form a separate class. In 1871 they numbered sixty-three.

Though the period from 1870 to 1890 was one of great expansion in the provision of public elementary education, it was also one during which the actual practice of inspection was at its worst. The Revised Code of 1860 had established a bad tradition which persisted indeed till the end of the nineteenth century, and has prolonged some of its evil effects even up till to-day. The main work of the inspector was not inspection but examination; his attention was focussed not on the school as a whole, but on the surface only of a narrow area of instruction; he was obliged to consider within this area not the process of instruction, but a brief show of results, and that except in reading on paper. This naturally restricted his outlook and threatened to degrade in time his educational ideals. Moreover the science and art of elementary education were as yet in their initial stages; there was no generally accepted body of principles based on a scientific investigation into young human nature, and the inspectors themselves—at

any rate up till 1882, and frequently afterwards—chosen from young men with good university degrees and of accepted social standing came usually to their life's work with little knowledge of either the theory of education or of the schools which they were appointed to inspect, and between them and the teachers in social status and in their general education the gulf was fixed wider than it is to-day. To the 'gentleman' inspector the public elementary schools were institutions for the lower orders with whom he could come into merely official contact. Class pride forbade his association with the teachers, differences in upbringing made it in any case difficult, for the teachers had come from the schools—in still cruder stages—in which they taught. The healing of the breach has been awaiting the influence of public education itself. If the assistant inspector, on the other hand, was drawn from the classes whose children it was his duty to examine, yet his own meagre education was not such as to elevate his ideals above the bare requirements of his job, which consisted—it will be remembered—in a mechanical examination of individual pupils in a few acquisitions or attainments. The assistant inspector became indeed exceedingly expert within his narrow limits, but perfection, thus attained, means stagnation.

Besides this the whole educational system was de-humanised by an atmosphere of formality and officialism. The inspector himself was in fact—whatever the theory—the servant, not of the people, but of the Education Department at Whitehall. He was severely restricted by instructions tying him down to special methods and an exact procedure. As far as the actual work of examination went this was a vicious consequence of the system—for in a mechanical examination uniformity of standard can only be attained by identity of procedure. If one inspector, for example, read out a dictation passage twice before the pupils, and another once only, or if the numbers on one set of test cards were printed in words, and on another in figures, there could be no common measure of the results. Hence we find the official instructions of 1872 going into detail over methods. 'It is best to dictate the sums, or if cards are used, the numbers must be printed in words. When cards are not used, the dictation of sums must be the rule through all the standards.' * * * * * * *

In dictation of sums the number should be given out according to the principle of numeration, *e.g.*, 3,045 should be 'three

thousand and forty-five' not 'three thousands, no hundreds, and forty-five,' etc.

'Teachers must not go near the classes.

Problems should be given, but not exclusively.'

Nor was it only on the conduct of the examination that the Department dictated to the inspector; he was treated to official homilies on his general procedure in schools and his programme of visits was precisely pre-arranged, there was no modifying it at discretion according to his judgment of local requirements. The inspector, in his turn, tended to mete out the same measure as he received.

The memories of the older headmasters of to-day carry them back to the inspection of the earlier eighties; and make it possible to reproduce the picture of inspection day. In the village school it was the great day of the year,—and was carefully prepared for in advance. The head teacher, while neglecting the better pupils who were pretty sure of passing the examination, had drilled and driven the dullards—not without tears—to the requisite level of attainment; the 'readers' had been duly memorised, and a number of arithmetical exercises, garnered from schools previously examined from the inspectors' test cards, had been worked again and again to the point of mechanical perfection, while all the 'spot' passages in the general 'reader' had been repeatedly spelt through against the test in dictation. A day before the inspection was due the whole school had been swept and garnished, and the friendly gardener of the local squire had lent a number of flower pots to decorate the school surroundings.

On the day of inspection the assistant inspector arrived betimes and set to work to distribute questions and test cards throughout the classes, afterwards marking off such results as the intervals in the examination allowed. These were entered in a detailed schedule, and it required a good deal of care to avoid mistakes in the entries. While he was thus engaged the inspector himself arrived about 11 o'clock, looked round the school, put a few questions to the head teacher, questioned the classes in history and geography and perhaps grammar, and took the lessons of the pupil teachers. He would probably see a little of every teacher, if there were several, but paid no particular attention to the methods employed in teaching. If the school were a Church one, the local clergyman would come in during the inspection and he and the inspector would leave after middle day for luncheon at the Hall. The

assistant was left to finish the examination work, and on the results of the examination and any impressions that the inspector had formed by his own observation, the certificates of the teachers were endorsed.

It must not however be gathered from this account that the influence of inspection was wholly bad. It is true that the prescribed method of examination compelled the inspector to stereotype an evil system—it was not his fault if the teachers spent the year in a round of mechanical drill, or in devising tricks and subterfuges; though it is always an inspector's responsibility if he becomes known for one special line of questioning or a particular set of arithmetical exercises that results in the school's confining its attention to these. It was the system from which the inspection suffered, as did the instruction, for vain repetitions deadened the pupil's interest and the learning of rules without reasons suppressed his intelligence.

On the other hand there is some good in thorough instruction of almost any sort—the habit of doing a little perfectly, acquired in childhood, may persist through life; and the contention of some of the older headmasters of to-day that the substitution of more intelligent teaching and a wider and more varied curriculum has been accompanied with a loss in application and intensity on the part of the pupil, in slacker and less accurate working, has some measure of truth.

Apart from its effect upon the instruction, the inspection of those days—being a corollary of any grant-in-aid system—had naturally its good effect in keeping a school up to the mark in building, equipment, and the technical qualifications of the staff; for it was always open to an inspector to refuse to recommend a grant to a school on grounds other than that of bad examination results; and the inspectors did not confine their inquiries to the teaching. The better amongst the inspecting staff were indeed in constant opposition to the system which they had to work, and the dictum of one of the inspectors that 'the studies of the classroom must be those in which progress can be definitely measured by examination, and that there can be no definite aim, no real training without examinations' is probably exceptional.

A further circumstance in the education of the period affected the influence of the inspector upon the school and its teaching. As has been already indicated, every step towards the establishment of state control over education was jealously

watched by the voluntary agencies to whom the measure of public elementary education already existing in 1870 was due. If State assistance was to find favour with these, it was important to be chary of all unnecessary interference in school management. The consequence was that the official instructions to inspectors contained more than one warning against internal interference with the schools. In the official instructions of 1871, for instance, inspectors are told not to interfere with the responsibility of managers and teachers for the details of school work. 'The efficiency of their arrangements' it is remarked 'will be tested by the results produced at the annual examination.' In the instructions accompanying the Code issued ten years later inspectors are explicitly warned against originating or suggesting schemes of study; but they might approve or reject them.

The Government's policy of the maximum of non-interference compatible with the continuance of educational progress must have accentuated still further that detachment of attitude which had already resulted from the class aloofness of the time. The inspector of those days came into official contact with the teachers only in the school; association with them outside the school work was a thing unthought of. His personal influence suffered accordingly.

Before the last decade of the century however changes for the better had already begun to take place in the conditions of the Government grant and more especially in the curriculum. Even before the Act of 1871 the practice of basing the grant calculations upon the success of individual pupils in the three R's had been modified by adding grant payments on account of certain extra subjects, and for improvements in staff and on account of successful pupil teachers. After 1871 special grants were first made for individual pupils passing in the higher standards in not more than two specific* subjects—which had in such cases to be taught to the whole class on a scheme approved by the inspector.

In 1875 another important change was made in the award of grants on account of satisfactory work in 'class' subjects, in which the class work was estimated as a whole, and not according to individual pupils. The subjects that could be thus treated were grammar, history, elementary geography and plain needlework. Later on the range of 'class' sub-

* Geography, history, grammar, algebra, geometry, natural philosophy, physical geography, natural science, political economy, languages.

jects was extended. This recognition of class teaching was for the good—it encouraged the teacher to consider the progress of the class as a whole, instead of paying special attention to the weak pupils and neglecting the strong. On the other hand the good resulting from the widening of the range of the curriculum by the addition of specific subjects was counterbalanced by the growth of a practice of 'cramming' individual pupils in extra subjects for the sake of the grant, and in an unnatural subdivision of subjects into the smallest branches which the Education Department could be got to recognise as a complete subject for the purpose. Thus physical geography was separated from general geography, euclid was separated from mensuration, and physics was split up into mechanics, heat, sound and light. An elementary school pupil might for instance offer physical geography while ignoring geography in general, and might acquire merit for himself and money for his school by accumulating scraps of knowledge disconnected one from another and all from the experiences of his every day life.

The practice of 'cramming' bright pupils with 'specific' subjects widened still further the gulf between the school and the practicalities of ordinary life.

The introduction of these changes in the grant-earning curriculum reacted upon the character of the inspectorate. Since 1863 the inspecting staff comprised two main classes, the superior staff of full inspectors—men of good university attainments, as a rule (though sometimes military or naval officers of no special experience or qualifications secured appointment)—and trained certificated elementary teachers of some little school experience. These latter had been entrusted with the drudgery of examination. Of these two classes the superior class was prone to disdain the work of individual examination of pupils, the inferior class was, on the other hand, no longer equal to the more exacting and intelligent duties imposed by the inclusion of 'specific' and 'class' subjects for examination. There was indeed some ground in the complaint made in Parliament in 1879 that young men fresh from college, with no special knowledge of children or elementary education, were not fitted to inspect elementary schools. Undoubtedly they did not as a rule start their new career suited to the work of individual or even class examination, and frequently when they did not regularly undertake it, remained unsuited for this part of an

inspecting officer's duties to the end. One solution of the problem was to promote schoolmasters to the post of inspectors, and in 1881 this step was taken by the creation of a class of sub-inspectors appointed from experienced teachers or headmasters of elementary schools or sometimes by promotion of older men from the assistant inspector class.

In point of fact the two inferior classes of inspector generally did the bulk of the work, though the superior officer remained responsible for every school report sent up from his district, and was expected to take a personal share in the examinations, to assess the grant, to endorse teachers' certificates, to visit in person every newly opened school, and any school the inspection of which he had left to his sub-inspector in the previous year.

The principle of encouraging progress in the instruction or otherwise in schools by paying for it piecemeal remained in force throughout this period. Granted that excellence—rather than the show of it—can be fostered by monetary rewards, the logical procedure, where any special defect in education becomes pronounced, is to offer money rewards for its removal. This was indeed the line actually adopted. And it is thus easy to trace from the changes in the incidence of grant the different steps in advance which the Government aimed at making between the year 1870 and 1890.

The grant for 'class' subjects, for instance, was to counteract the tendency to neglect the progress of the class as a whole, that for individual excellence in 'specific' subjects to revive interest in the more intelligent pupils, who under the old régime were left to themselves as soon as they reached the pass standard in elementary subjects. Other measures of the period exemplify the same general policy. To raise the 'elementary' instruction above a bare mechanical minimum, the 'standards' in the three R's were revised in 1871. An increase in grant in the same year where there was separate accommodation for infants indicates a recognition of their special requirements.

Singing received a grant in 1872. Attempts followed to give school work a more practical turn. The terms of the grant for science as a 'specific' subject were modified in 1875, to discourage 'rote' learning of mere information. A year later a premium was placed upon domestic economy as a specific subject for girls. Between 1880 and 1890 elementary science (or object lessons) became a 'class' subject

throughout a school—active observation was to temper the prevailing bookishness. On the girls' side cookery obtained a grant. A more advanced (or seventh) standard of instruction was established in 1882. Later on English was given preference as a 'class' subject. A 'merit' grant for organisation, discipline, the intelligence of the teaching, and the general quality of the school's work had been also introduced in 1881. In 1886 a Royal Commission was appointed to inquire into the working of the Elementary Education Act, and its report published in 1888 led to further changes in 1890. Meantime the chief features of this period have been described as a general rise in the standards of attainment expected, a continuance of emphasis upon instruction in English, and a recognition of the importance of practical training for girls.

The work of inspection, became, of course, correspondingly more complicated, and in greater need of experience and skilled guidance. The need for experience was recognised by the institution of the 'sub-inspector' class; that for guidance by the flood of circulars and instructions that flowed from the Department. The combined effect of these changes in curriculum and in the inspectorate and of the departmental instructions was to improve the general efficiency of inspection. Inspectors attended to a wider range of subjects, and more than previously to the class instruction as a whole, and within limits to the methods of instruction and to the general conduct of the school. The improvement in the prospects of the assistant inspector and the institution of the 'sub-inspector' class brought greater experience in dealing with the internal economy and the instructional condition of schools. The sub-inspector—an old teacher of ability—was less likely to be misled by tricks or showy teaching than the superior inspector or his less experienced assistant. His methods were more enlightened than the latter's and more penetrating than the former's; he knew the schools.

There were however two circumstances in this period that tended to confuse or impede inspection, a prevailing indecision or ignorance as to ideals or methods in school organization and teaching, and the system of subdividing the school's activities into watertight compartments for separate grants. Concerning the principles of education those practically interested in the subject had been gradually amassing experience and ideas, but it still remained to carry through the process of sifting and to establish agreement upon fundamental

laws. System and rationalisation were awaited. Thus the epoch was one in which the views of inspectors interested in educational progress proved often fragmentary, sometimes ill-advised, and occasionally contradictory. In such circumstances in order to secure uniformity in practice regular instructions were issued to inspectors from headquarters. But unfortunately for this policy the central authority was involved in the same perplexity as its subordinates, and its instructions suffered from the hesitation and lack of conviction that come when principles have not been thought out. Nor, of course, will many of their recommendations survive criticism to-day. In 1880 for example the more than dubious method is prescribed of teaching the 'class' subjects (such as geography and history) through the medium of reading books, special sets to be provided for each subject, and confined to that subject only. Inspectors are warned that they may approve or reject schemes submitted to them, but may not originate or suggest schemes themselves. This is an impracticable compromise between the policies of encouraging the schools to govern themselves and the inspectors to guide their efforts, not only to estimate their worth.

Similarly another circular, after suggesting several objections to the employment of women teachers in the lower classes of boys' schools ends by permitting managers to try the experiment on their own responsibility. The Department had evidently not made up its mind as to the now recognised value of women in the education of little children of either sex.

The movements initiated from the Department were, however, mainly in advance, and inspectors stood to gain from their reception of new ideas and the general educational stir of the time. But so long as the system of individual examinations and payment for results continued, their methods could not make any definite break with the old routine; and the epoch 1870—1890 is one of comparative stagnation in the art of inspection. The work in fact was largely uninteresting; and the inspector relied upon his leisure hours for the chief relaxation and interest of life. He got his inspection over in the morning, and went shooting with the local squire in the afternoon.

The policy of distributing grants by items in a school's activities was a second hindrance to an inspector's efficiency. There were grants calculated on individual examination in elementary subjects, grants for this and that class subject,

grants again on account of individuals successful in specific subjects, grants for cookery and singing, and for discipline, organization and the general intelligence and quality of the school work.

The inspector's main attention was thus uniformly directed to the same succession of details in every school; there was scant time, whatever his inclination, to consider its individual possibilities or the broader aspects of school life. What pupils did outside the school, their games and pastimes and home-work, their physical condition generally, their general reading, the unity of the curriculum or its suitability to local circumstances, the relation of the school to social and industrial opportunities, many of these important bearings of school life got little consideration.

4. After 1890.

The last quarter of a century has witnessed changes in the grant-in-aid system, and in the curriculum in relation to that system, which have resulted in freeing inspection from ulterior trammels for the valuable task of watching and guiding educational progress. The examination system has disappeared, and even the term 'inspection' is so changing its significance that it may soon become a positive misnomer.

In 1890 the system of calculating grants upon individual passes in the elementary subjects was modified. Since 1881 there had existed a fixed grant of 4*s*. 6*d*. per unit of average attendance, to be supplemented by amounts which varied with the percentage of total successes in the examination, a contrivance, be it noted, to prevent the presentation of pupils unlikely to pass. There was also a 'merit' grant, varying again per unit in attendance according as the school was adjudged fair, good, or excellent on the score of organization, discipline, intelligence in the teaching, and the general quality of the work. These variables were now replaced by a 'principal' grant at 12*s*. 6*d*. or 14*s*. per unit on attendance, according to the estimate of the inspector; and a separate grant of 1*s*. or 1*s*. 6*d*. was assigned to organization and discipline. Thus the vicious principle of payment for individual results was given up. The grant for class subjects at 1*s*. to 2*s*. and those against individual success in specific subjects remained, but except in the last case the grants were calculated upon average attendance.

Steps could now be taken to replace individual examinations by better methods of estimating a school's worth. A scheme of examination by 'sample' was introduced in 1890; each 'standard' was divided into three sections by the teacher, each of which was examined in a single one of the three elementary subjects, instead of the whole class being taken in all three. In 1894 inspection replaced examination in infant schools and departments. The next year the experiment was made in the Lambeth and Berkshire areas of a scheme of replacing examination by inspection in all departments and a tentative official recognition was accorded by a regulation introduced into the Code that same year exempting schools of special merit from examination provided two visits were paid to them in the year. During the next two or three years the new method of 'inspection' spread over the country. It was at first opposed by some inspectors and by a large number of teachers who knew their way about the old examination and had often become experts in bringing all their pupils up to scratch for its mechanical requirements. They objected to the indefinite nature of an 'inspection,' and where, as was not infrequent, their skill in 'cramming' their pupils was in inverse ratio to the intelligence of their methods, they naturally feared exposure of the hollowness of their teaching. But the system of individual examination of pupils in the obligatory and specific subjects and of basing the grant aggregate upon individual successes in them had practically disappeared by 1897.

One further step has yet to be recorded before we examine the influence of these changes upon inspection and the inspectorate. The grants still remained adjudged against a number of separate subjects or groups of subjects. The 'principal' grant, introduced in 1890 to replace the separate merit and elementary subject grants, was still largely based upon the general attainments of pupils in the obligatory or elementary subjects, and in addition grants were apportioned on account of the class subjects at so much per pupil in attendance, while another grant was given on account of specific subjects. And there were grants or grant variations on account of needlework, singing, and drawing.

In 1900 this system ceased. Except as regards cookery, laundry work, manual training, and (a new subject) household management, a system of block grants awarded, on one of two scales according to the inspector's recommendation, and upon

an estimate of the worth of the school as a whole, replaced the plan of calculating grants subject-wise. In other words, the school was at least freed from the necessity of considering how far it paid to give up one subject or take another or to give more attention to this pupil than to that. The curriculum could now be considered upon its intrinsic merits.

During these years a good deal had been done to make the curriculum more liberal and elastic, and to adapt it to the needs of the pupils. Encouragement was given to manual instruction for boys, and laundry work for girls. One class subject was made obligatory in 1893. Dairy work and housewifery were specially provided for, and the education of infants was reformed on Froebelian lines. Alternative courses were permitted in English, geography, elementary science and history. Military drill yielded place to more suitable physical exercises, including swimming, gymnastics and Swedish drill. On the whole more time was given to science, mathematics and commercial subjects, and to domestic subjects for girls and manual subjects for boys; while the literary side of the curriculum received less emphasis than hitherto.

This transition period during which the activities of the schools were being freed from the tyranny of commercialism and the curriculum was gradually coming to be based on educational grounds alone, was also one in which the old methods of inspection were giving place to new.

When questioned on his experiences of inspectors in the eighties and nineties an old headmaster instances his surprise, when during the period of examination of standards by sample, the inspector went so far as to let him make changes in the 'sample' sections to keep all the dullards from appearing in the same subject. The old days of punctilious formality in inspection, when it was not proper for the teacher to venture a remark unless first addressed, were passing away. A more human and natural atmosphere began to creep over the inspection; formality began to yield to friendliness. A change took place in the constitution of the inspectorate which indeed symbolises this. The body of inspectors, and the schools through them, were no longer solely controlled by impersonal mandates from Whitehall—a Chief Inspector of elementary schools was created in 1890 for the whole area of England and Wales. Centralisation by uniform prescription is being replaced by the more human method of co-ordination after personal discussion. A similarly 'human' measure was the appointment of women inspectors in 1896 for the inspection of

infant schools and the specifically feminine subjects—laundry, needlework, dairying, and domestic subjects. The increasing complexity and difficulty of the inspector's duties brought other changes. As individual examination ceased, the assistant inspector class needed improvement in quality and personnel if, with more varied curricula and more intelligent syllabuses, it was to continue to appraise the school work. In 1892 a qualifying examination was instituted for this class, and in 1896 the class designation lapsed: the old assistant inspectors became part of the second grade of the sub-inspector class. The class of sub-inspectors then took on some of the inspector's duties, and the number of full inspectors was correspondingly reduced. And with the growing insistence upon drawing as a regular part of the boys' curriculum, and of manual training as an ordinary subject in schools, specialist inspectors came in from the Science and Art Department South Kensington; till 1897 this Department inspected the practical subjects independently of the Board of Education and assigned them grants from its own exchequer. But at first these specialists were often military officers ignorant of the schools who carried out their duties perfunctorily and had a depressing effect upon the teaching.

The changes made in the grant system, the abolition of individual examination, the introduction of genuine inspection, the expansion of the curriculum, the greater freedom given to managers and headmasters in the choice of subjects and syllabuses, the appointment of specialist inspectors, and the insistence upon higher qualifications in the subordinate inspecting staff, coincided with a more or less general change in the spirit in which an inspecting officer went about his work. During this decade he was less rigidly controlled by official orders and instructions than formerly, and had consequently more freedom in arranging his inspection and inspection methods to suit his own ideas of the immediate requirement of his schools. Casual visits had for some years been definitely encouraged by the department, but it was not till 1895 that a formal annual inspection of each school ceased to be required. The cessation of these, and the substitution of inspection for examinations after 1897 paved the way for an alteration in the rôle of the inspector. In the old days he regarded himself mainly as a critic of the school's work—his tendency in practice was to expose weaknesses, to find the teacher out. The individual examination system made this attitude on his part almost inevitable, because it was so devised

that a teacher might secure good results for his pupils, not by intelligent instruction, but by learning how to hoodwink the inspector by concealment and subterfuge. That the inspector, on his part, should endeavour to defeat these manœuvres was not only natural, it was his duty; and the relations between the two parties were artificially strained over this elaborate game of hide-and-seek. Good inspectors no doubt remained superior to these evil influences, but they could not altogether escape the effects of a bad system. But now they were free to approach the teacher in a more genial frame of mind and to exchange a critical attitude for one of encouragement and construction. They were free to aim not merely at estimating a school's examination value for grant purposes but at counselling the staff to take due advantage of the greater freedom offered them. In conjunction with the more advanced among the teachers they became the pioneers of progress in the schools, carrying from school to school ideas and methods gathered—under the new conditions—from here and there; the ferment of thought and experiment that stirs the elementary schools to-day took its birth from this period.

The cessation of individual examinations too made it at last possible for inspectors to extend their survey of a school to its work and condition as a whole. They need no longer concentrate upon a uniform series of subject details, nor upon the preparation of elaborate schedules of results. They might now consider the value of a school as such, and what is more important—could vary their procedure as time and place required. Where for instance he had previously to distribute the time at his disposal upon examining in a succession of particular subjects, the inspector could now save time from testing the pupil's attainments for considering such matters as the time-tables, the games and physical exercises, the use made of pictures or apparatus, the bearing of school work on home life, and other questions arising in connection with the instruction or the school life generally. In these circumstances inspecting officers could widen and vary the range of their inquiries, and in so doing could find scope for their own special aptitudes, and put more of themselves into their work. Add to this that education was becoming more and more philosophically and scientifically studied, and its relation with every side of human life investigated. It was indeed a dull topic no longer. The result was that the inspector who looked upon his work as drudgery and sought relief and relaxation in his leisure hours was gradually exchanged for a type

of inquirer who found his main interest in his ordinary day's work.

It was becoming easier too to get into sympathetic personal contact with the school staff. Not only was the teacher a more educated and a more interesting and more interested personality than heretofore, but there was far more time and opportunity for conversation. The social gulf between the inspector and the teacher was narrowing. The inspector who delivered his views 'ex cathedra' was becoming rare; instead, teacher and inspector began to take counsel together on their common concern.

This change of attitude did not come all at once: the revolution is not complete even to-day,—but it was first made possible in the twelve years preceding the Education Act of 1902.

The movement towards a more general type of inspection is illustrated in the change in the kind of reports written. In the early nineties it was still customary to write elaborate reports upon each school, dealing with each school subject in succession, particularising on the state of instruction in each class and frequently upon individual teachers. This type of report was primarily critical and indicated the level of instruction in this or that subject—whether satisfactory or otherwise—rather than the intelligence or suitability of the methods employed in teaching or the means by which they could be bettered. The annual reports compiled by divisional inspectors were something similar in nature; they consisted mainly of a succession of extracts from the reports of district inspectors, and would go into a good deal of detail on the instruction in elementary, class, and specific subjects, giving what would now seem undue prominence to trivial points in the instruction; but they attempted little summary impression of the state of education as a whole. By the end of the century however perspective is being corrected; less attention is being paid to particulars under each subject of the curriculum, and other branches of a school's life come in for more notice.

The Board of Education recognised the changed conditions in its instructions to inspectors of the year 1899 and 1900, in which it cautions inspectors not to particularise in their reports upon school work except for the purpose of noting special excellences or defects and to avoid making personal remarks upon teachers. 'Your annual report should consist of a short description of the general character of the school as regards instruction, organisation, discipline, premises and apparatus.'

Since 1900 the rapid development of education succeeding the passage of the Education Act of 1902 has led to a corresponding differentiation and expansion in the inspectorate.

As in previous periods, changes in the inspecting hierarchy have corresponded with changes in the regulations regarding school curricula. But meantime there has been a rapid growth in publicly provided secondary and technical and continuation schools of various kinds; and separate inspectorates have been created to deal with both these branches of public education. It is not however my intention to deal with their history or place in the general inspection system, except to indicate their relation to the work of inspection in elementary schools (see Chapter on Co-ordination). I have however included a short chapter on secondary school inspection as also interesting in itself. A history of the secondary school inspectorate is given in the Board of Education's report for 1914-15.

5. The Elementary School inspectorate after 1900.

The seven years from 1895 'marks the end' says the Board's report for 1910-11 'of the system in force since 1862, by which the choice of subjects in the curriculum of the school had been controlled mainly by monetary considerations. Within reasonable limits managers and teachers were now free to choose what they should teach and how they should teach it, without regard to the probable effect of their choice upon examination results and the financial stability of the schools.' At present the ordinary subjects of an elementary school curriculum comprise the English language, handwriting, arithmetic, drawing, observation lessons and nature study, geography, history, singing, hygiene and physical training, and for girls domestic subjects. This however does not represent an invariable rule—there is freedom to omit, to add, or to vary within reasonable limits to suit local circumstances; and in addition to these subjects grants are given for work in cookery, laundry, housewifery, dairy work, handicraft and gardening. There is also complete freedom in selection of syllabus, provided the syllabus has the inspector's approval. And the Board has concerned itself, not to prescribe the details of each course (as in the days of uniform examination) but to put before the school authorities the best that is so far ascertainable as to the matter and method of the instruction in each subject, for local

guidance and adaptation. This change in attitude towards the school curriculum affected the demands made upon the inspectorate in two ways. First it required a far deeper knowledge of educational aims and values, and a greater ability to consider each school in relation to its environment than had been the case hitherto; and, secondly, when much was left to local initiative and experiment, personal co-ordination in principle and practice amongst the inspectors became the more necessary, if the unity of elementary education was to be maintained, or economy of effort secured.

Steps have consequently been taken from time to time to improve the organisation of the elementary school inspectorate and to secure a better professional preparation in the personnel.

The time required:—

(1) As perfect an organisation as possible (in the literal sense) of the inspecting hierarchy;

(2) As perfect an acquaintance as possible, on the part of the inspector individually, with the principles of education and the methods of instruction and school management.

The beginning of the twentieth century has witnessed steps taken in both of these directions.

The Senior chief inspector, as he was called when he was first distinguished from his confrères in 1891, became the Chief Inspector of elementary schools in 1902, and the previously named chief inspectors became inspectors of divisions. This change in nomenclature signified an actual development in duties. The chief inspector was no longer 'primus inter pares' but occupied a separate position 'in general control over the whole inspectorate and as a channel of communication between the inspectorate and the Board.'

The divisional inspectors, in their turn, each responsible for a definite geographical area, were expected 'to supervise in a more specific and effective manner than hitherto the work of all district inspectors; and their districts for which they were personally responsible were reduced in size. The divisional inspector is in future expected to keep himself acquainted with the work of the inspecting staff in his area, and to hold periodical conferences, reporting to the Board through the Chief Inspector any administrative changes he may think advisable. The Chief Inspector in his turn is

expected to keep in touch with the actual work being done in each division, visiting his divisional inspectors and holding conferences of them as a body; being thus prepared to make recommendations to the Board whose administration is to be guided by the advice of the inspecting staff as a body.' The practice of holding local conferences of their subordinate staff has generally been also adopted by district inspectors, so that the inspecting staff now possesses a machinery for communication of ideas and experience in all directions. This subject will be expanded in a later chapter on Co-ordination. Steps have also been taken to improve the qualifications of inspecting officers. From 1882 onwards appointments of His Majesty's Inspectors were supposed to be made on grounds of special qualifications or experience, and more care has been taken in recent years to see that inspectors are specially equipped and trained before they assume independent charge. The old sub-inspector class (men promoted from the class of inspector's assistants) is pronounced an anachronism by 1901, 'a hindrance in the new system of inspection.'

From that date vacancies in the class of sub-inspector were filled by the newly created junior inspector, appointed like the full inspector from University graduates of good attainments. It was intended of course to promote the junior inspector to a full inspectorship after a time, but at the same time a course of probation and preparation was stipulated before he was to undertake the duties of an inspector independently. Within recent years a class of assistant inspectors has again been introduced, appointments being made of headmasters or assistants in elementary schools, and no recent appointments to junior inspectorships have been made. But it has to be remembered that an experienced elementary school teacher to-day has not only himself received a higher grade of general education in the training college or university than was possible twenty years ago, but throughout his career as teacher has taught under a new set of circumstances—a freedom and a responsibility through which if he takes the opportunity he can continue his general education and obtain an efficient training in the management of a school. The chapter on Training and Qualifications treats this topic in more detail.

The influences exerted upon the inspectorate by the administrative changes made by the Education Act of 1902 and the great development of public education in various directions of recent years are incidentally treated in some of the

chapters that follow. It must suffice here to indicate briefly the nature of the administrative change effected and the expansion in the constitution of the inspectorate as it stands to-day.

For the thirty years preceding 1902 elementary schools had been managed either by voluntary bodies, of one or other religious denomination, or by specially constituted school boards. Excepting in big city areas the latter were small bodies locally elected for individual schools, and had powers limited to local school management. They were indeed usually unprogressive and even obstructive, actuated by personal rather than public motives, and incapable of a broad view of their subject. This system might serve so long as the curriculum was fixed and the instruction standardised by an external examination. But with the newer freedom and latitude of local education the small school board passed out of date. The extension of self-government had seen the creation of larger units of local administration, county and borough and urban and rural councils. In 1902 the control of public education was handed over to these bodies, who appointed Education Committees for the purpose in their respective areas, and received a large measure of freedom in determining and meeting the local educational requirements. It became the business of the local education authority—as the council was called —'to consider the supervision and provision of the different grades of education in their relation to one another. . . . within the given area.' Many of the larger of these authorities have since appointed educational inspecting officess of their own. The difficulties which beset a dual system of inspection, and the influence which it has exerted upon the Board's inspecting work, are noticed in the Chapter on Co-ordination below.

The Act of 1902 has, further, encouraged a wide variety of educational expansion. In the England of to-day different types of publicly provided school have become sufficiently specialised to require corresponding differentiation in the inspectorate. Institutions under inspection fall roughly into five classes:—

1. Elementary schools.
2. Secondary schools and Pupil Teacher centres.
3. Training institutions.
4. Technical, Evening, and Continuation schools.
5. Schools of art.

There is a Chief Inspector for all England for each of groups 1, 2, 4, and 5, and a divisional elementary inspector

acts as staff or organising head for group 3. Elementary and technical schools are grouped in nine and three divisions respectively, under divisional inspectors with some eighty-two and thirty His Majesty's inspectors of districts. The elementary district inspectors are assisted by over 150 subordinate officers (sub-inspectors or junior or assistant inspectors). For secondary school inspection there are twenty territorial inspectors, immediately subordinate to the Chief Inspector at headquarters. Five of the nine elementary school divisional inspectors and their women inspectors are immediately responsible for the inspection of training colleges. There are six inspectors for schools of art. And several officers are either separately appointed for special subjects or inspect them in addition to other duties. Such subjects comprise:—handicraft, rural subjects and gardening, domestic subjects, science, mathematics, history and economics, drawing, mining, engineering, boot and shoe making, printing and bookbinding, navigation, textile subjects, boys' clubs, girls' clubs, and commerce.

The Medical Department is a development within the last decade, which inspects physical exercises in schools, certain special schools for blind or deaf or mentally defective children, and supervises the working of the systems of medical school inspection which have recently sprung up under local bodies all over the country. The relation which obtains between some of these different inspecting branches are considered in the Chapter on Co-ordination.

CHAPTER II.

Qualifications and Training for School Inspection.

Applicants for the post of His Majesty's inspector are expected to be able to show evidence of some special interest or experience in their subject. 'In the selection of candidates,' runs the Board of Education's statement on the subject, 'regard will be had to character, general ability, educational qualifications (both academical and professional), experience in teaching or in the organization or inspection of schools, and to any other evidence of fitness for the office of inspector. Appointments will occasionally be made with reference to special qualifications for some one subject of instruction, but as a rule the officers so appointed will be expected to be able to do the general work of an inspector, and will not be chosen with a view to their exclusive employment in the inspection of any one subject.'

Though the ordinary man is still apt to associate with the name inspector the possession of a gentlemanly manner and a good university degree, in point of fact the number of inspectors now at work in England who beside their inspecting experience can quote nothing but a good general education must be very small. It is to be noticed that at the present day appointments to the post of full inspector are made preferably of candidates between thirty and forty-five years of age; and this alone argues a considerable experience in work of some kind connected with education before appointment. The inspectors in charge of districts, indeed, vary in their special previous educational experience quite considerably. Some, appointed in or before the end of the early nineteen hundreds, were young men, well under thirty, with only a year or two's experience of teaching—often in one of the English 'public' schools—when they were appointed, and one or two of the older officers were men, who in addition to a high university degree, qualified themselves for their future profession by working for one or two years as elementary teachers first. But His Majesty's inspectors of to-day include in their ranks several previous elementary school headmasters, men who have worked as principals or teachers in Council secondary schools, or as professors in training or other colleges, and graduates of the

newer universities who have taken up special lines. Several inspectors have had practical experience in both school and college work, or in both elementary and secondary schools, and there are some who happily combine high academic qualifications gained at the older universities with an inside working experience of elementary schools. Two of the nine divisional inspectors are of this class, one of whom, for example, taught for years in an elementary school, took for two years the headship of a training college in the East, and has filled in turn the posts of sub-inspector, district inspector, and divisional inspector in England. His academic qualifications include a good degree at Oxford. Very roughly however the three grades of officer which differentiate the present inspectorate, correspond with previous training or experience of three distinct types. These grades are the inspector (*His Majesty's inspector, to be strictly accurate—a term including district and divisional inspector), the assistant inspector, and the sub-inspector. The class of inspector (including a few junior inspectors, a special class in existence between 1902 and 1908, most of whom have since gained full inspectorships) implies the preliminary qualifications of a good Oxford or Cambridge degree, and some experience in teaching, commonly in an English public school. The sub-inspector class (like the junior inspector class no longer recruited for) implies, as a rule, experience as an assistant or head teacher in an elementary school before the present century, and therefore, generally a course of training in an elementary training college. The sub-inspectors to-day are almost all elderly men who have been engaged in elementary school inspection for many years.

The class of assistant inspectors is one recently created, and consists of men around middle age, chosen chiefly from head teachers, or experienced assistants in elementary schools.

In their respective contributions to efficiency in inspection, a comparison is possible between the two extreme types of previous training and experience. An officer who has grown up in the elementary school atmosphere, whose experience of teaching well precedes the present century, and of inspecting runs some way into double figures, though without a liberal formal education, is often distinguished for certain definite inspecting capabilities.

These include for instance a ready acquaintance with the standard of attainment and to some extent of ability, that may

* The order of appointment is still signed by the King.

be expected in pupils of different ages, and power to test these attainments quickly and to the point. There is often a variety of ingenious devices in the tests employed, gathered from long and tried experience and an intimacy with the workings of a school pupil's mind. Intelligence as it works within the limits of a fixed course is pretty accurately gauged, and a number of defects in method, as recognised in a certain type of training manual, are readily discovered by tests especially devised to reveal them. There is little deceiving an inspector who, along certain lines, knows his elementary schools inside out. He is indeed noticeably intimate with the elementary class of school pupil, and is in touch with their home circumstances and their manner of thinking and acting. He can therefore adapt his questioning not only to their intelligence but also—which is more important—to their interests. His arithmetic is practical, not only as it deals with bread and butter, pins and needles, or pots and pans, but with these items in a child's life as they occur and are treated in the street or shop or house that the child knows. For this reason, and through length of years in so doing, he is adept in the handling of a class. He knows how to place his questions, not only how to frame them, and how to detect and stir the weaker pupils. He is quick to seize the attention of the class, and can take it on from the teacher with confidence, though he may be no longer skilled in developing an oral lesson for its benefit.

His inspection is often characterised too by a rapidity of test and an economy of management which secures an aggregate of results in the shortest time. There is no sauntering or superfluous talking with the teacher; the inspection is as a rule almost austerely to the point. It has usually a definiteness of procedure that makes it easy to describe.

In a typical case, for instance, of a middle sized urban school, the inspector starts his day with one department, setting each class written tests in arithmetic or composition. He is careful to see that the questions are clearly understood. This done from room to room, he returns on his tracks to check the starting arrangements of the teacher. By the time this is over the class in the room he took first is ready for its oral examination, in reading, say, or history or geography, and the room to room itinerary is repeated with the oral work. In this way each class is tested in at least two subjects. Papers are then collected, and part are marked by the teacher, both to save the inspector's time and to acquaint him with the standard expected of the class; and in each class the whole

body of papers is collected, and handed over to the inspector, neatly arranged, for his further scrutiny at home. On the morrow he returns early to the school and during the Scripture period goes over with the headmaster such points as his scrutiny of the papers has suggested. The infant department, as it involves less paper work, is dealt with last. Here is inspection with a regular and definite method.

The contribution to the inspector's practical qualifications that is given by a good general education at public school and college and some experience of teaching in a public school, is of a different nature. An officer of this type has been trained in the power of abstract thinking, and in the consideration of topics from several points of view. His mental horizon is broadened,—he has learnt to view a subject in the big, and to recognise its relation to the several sides of the larger life around it. He starts less in touch with hard fact, more interested in ideas and enthusiastic for ideals, though unacquainted with the daily and detailed obstacles to their realisation. Being less conversant with the elementary school classroom than the school teacher, he may be neither so adept in handling a class nor so confident and homely in his manner. He may not be a good oral questioner, and he will certainly be less expeditious in obtaining his results; and they may be less definite when he has obtained them. On the other hand, if his weapons are less clear cut, they are more flexible and adaptable. If he sees less clearly it may be because he looks for so much more. If his attention is dispersed it is because there are so many more objects that attract it. If his method is less easily summarised, it is because it is too variable and elastic to include under any general formula; and it is variable because he comes to a school not with a preconceived plan of attack suitable to schools of every type, or even to schools of every type within one grade, or kind of locality, but because he is sensitive to the differences and peculiarities of each school as he sees it, and would follow in each case the plan of action that suits the circumstances. He may be inferior in classroom readiness, in variety and ingenuity of tests, in the rapid use of a handy instrument, but he is the less ready in using an instrument because there are more instruments that he is ready to use. He focusses the less, as a rule, on the work or attainments of the pupil, more upon the aims and methods of the teacher. He is less severely and intensely inspecting the school; he may question the pupils, or set some written work —but usually here and there only; he will stop and talk with

teacher and headmaster; discover their ideas about their work, any innovations made or contemplated; he may spend much time in apparent sauntering without seeking for palpable results. The pupils' records, and written exercise books, will come in for notice here, and their attitude to the teacher or their subject in an oral lesson next door, or the care which they show or the intelligence or resourcefulness which questioning reveals, in their practical occupations. He may take special note of the topics set for composition, of the way in which the pupils prepare for their written work, or of their readiness in expressing themselves orally upon work done. But what he is trying to do in all this various and sometimes leisurely procedure, is not so much to probe the pupil's attainments and intelligence in this and that subject, or to serve up to himself an aggregate result for the class or the school, with measures of deficiency in this or excellence in that subject, as to find out what the pupils are gaining from a broader educational standpoint, in power, for example, to deal intelligently and keenly (that is, usefully) with the ordinary demands of their everyday life. What good is this school doing to its pupils? Does it really contribute to their welfare as present or future members of society? What is its influence upon them in heart as in head? Is it giving them interests that are worthwhile or the means of pursuing these interests professionally? And is it doing this, with an eye on the economic and social milieu into which most of them will have to fit? It is questions of this kind that his university training sets stirring in the mind of the inspector as he visits his school, and his plan of inspection is framed accordingly. If he saunters—it is with a method.

Inspectors themselves vary in their estimates of the ideal equipment for an inspector's work. To the question whether actual experience in teaching in elementary schools should not be a qualification demanded in all ordinary cases, answers differ. There is the view that you need not be a painter to be able to appreciate a picture, nor a practical teacher to appraise a school. The analogy may perhaps hold true if appraisement means a judgment of the picture or the school against ideals—a recognition, that is, of the picture's claims to beauty or the school's claims as a perfect place of education. But in practice the appraisement of a school involves more than this, it involves an appreciation of the efforts made to obtain perfection, and the progressive nature of those efforts—the inspector has to measure the struggle, not only the attainment. And

just as in regard to a picture the care needed for its production can be measured best by the man who can most nearly place himself in the position of the painter at his work, so to give due credit for a school's work, it is necessary to assume the position of the worker; and though this can be partially done by patient inquiry into particulars, it is clear that the surest way of understanding the detailed complexities of the teaching life is to live it. It must indeed require an exceptional gift of imagination to appropriate the emotional attitude of a teacher to his environment, without having oneself taught in similar circumstances. For the purpose of inspection an officer who approaches a school without this experience is the less certain of his ground in making his appraisement—to teach in an elementary school is to find out how much can be reasonably expected of another in the same situation, and thus to be able to make due allowance for the difficulties of advance. An inspector with this experience can thus not only estimate the school's worth the more justly, but can distinguish with more certainty between the practicable and the impracticable, and be the more useful in his advice. On the other hand, a liberal general education—such as for example a course in Literae Humaniores with the social life of Oxford—should, and does, in most cases train its student in a varied consideration of questions before him, and thus to an intellectual assumption of several points of view. One effect of a wide intellectual education is the capacity to think oneself into other people's circumstances and this brings with it the habit of making allowances even for difficulties beyond one's own experience. Where, without the actual experience itself, it is apt to fail is in the power of gauging those difficulties precisely, and thus of adjusting the judgment to the case.

Of the two qualifications for an inspector, an experience as a teacher and headmaster in the type of school inspected, and a good school and university education, there can be no doubt as to which, in ordinary cases, is the more valuable. Education alone can lead to a full appreciation of its own ideals, and alone can train to intellectual sympathy, and an officer who starts with breadth of view, a trained imagination and power of accurate and many sided thought, needs only time and experience in his vocation to distinguish between the visionary and the practical. On the other hand, no amount of teaching in itself will equip a teacher for judging circumstances different from his own. Unless—through formal education or otherwise—he has also acquired the habits of wider thought,

he is apt to understand, in fresh circumstances, only what is already familiar, and to make no allowance for the unknown. One test of a good education is the measure of one's power to understand the unfamiliar.

The difference in standpoint between teacher and inspector necessarily sometimes results in one-sided criticism. Thus complaints made by teachers or headmasters of the impracticability and idealism of inspectors' recommendations may be only a natural weapon of self-exoneration. An inspector may expect too much—a teacher may also try too little. In point of fact, inspectors seem seldom to advance important suggestions except in consultation with the head teacher or after enlisting his co-operation, unless in cases of obviously misconducted schools. There are instances where sound advice is discredited if it comes from officers who have not taught in elementary schools themselves, and the fact that a teacher has more confidence in the advice of an officer who has been through the mill, is to that extent an advantage to an officer who has so qualified.

There is also a good deal that could be said in favour of some acquaintance with the training of teachers as a qualification for inspection, and it is doubtful if an actual course in a training college, as student or lecturer, is not even more valuable as a preliminary qualification than a course of teaching in schools, especially in imparting familiarity with a variety of methods in teaching, with the principles of school organisation, and with future teachers in their college stage.

In default of any systematic organisation for producing school inspectors ready made, however, the practical question is not one of enumerating ideal qualifications, or combinations of qualifications, for the profession, but of the actual discovery of the best man and of giving such supplementary training as may seem necessary after appointment. In practice men who often possess the ideal combination of a good university degree and a sufficient practical experience in elementary school or elementary training college work are none too common, and the working solution of the Board of Education in the past has been to recognise this fact by distributing the duties of inspector amongst officers of two distinct types. The detailed inspection of individual schools is largely left either to the sub-inspectors, or to the new class of assistant inspectors, in charge as a rule of sub-divisions of districts; while the district inspector, usually an officer of considerable university attainments, represents the Board of Education for his district as a

whole. The assistant inspector has his eye rather on the class room and the school, the inspector on the school and the area; the assistant is invaluable in the detail of school inspection, particularly in assessing the work of teachers and classes, and the upkeep of registers and the routine of organisation; the inspector's business is rather to consider the school in its relation to its outer environment and the general requirements of the district, and to view it in its place in the educational system as a whole. He directs the strategy for the district, his assistant deals with tactics in the school. This differentiation in standpoint must only be taken as roughly and generally true, for district inspectors are free to distribute the district work as they will, while they are expected formally to visit every school in their area at least once in three years.

For the profession of school inspection however paper and technical qualification are certainly of no more importance than personal character. Education is the making of humanity; and in no profession—except that of statesman or clergyman—is the material treated and the machinery for treating it less material and less mechanical. A teacher is not, like an engineer, for instance, concerned with producing or working engines, or with schemes of traction and motion, nor even like the doctor primarily with the care of bodies; his main business is to develop mind and character; and in this process technical knowledge comes second and his own personality first. A school inspector, in one aspect, is a teacher on a wider scale; he should have a 'sense' for rightly treating children of every kind.

But besides this he is an educationist in a still wider capacity; and as the success with which he works here depends peculiarly upon his personal qualifications and character, the part which he is expected to play in promoting the interests of public education in England requires understanding.

The Act of 1902 placed the provision of public education mainly in the hands of the existing local councils of various kinds for local self-government: it added—as the Act of 1870 had not completely done—education to the list of matters in which the people, as represented by their local bodies, should now govern themselves. The democratic ideal can only be realised as the people are enabled and assisted to train themselves for the efficient execution of the tasks which they successively undertake. And it is the business of the central government—and in this case of the Board of Education—to

watch and safeguard this progressive preparation. In this process of 'educating our masters' a middle course has to be steered between two extremes. On the one hand an excess of prescription or even of advice hinders the growth of the sense of responsibility and of the power to exercise it. Capacity for self-government can come only with practice; and thus for future efficiency as educationists local authorities must exercise a due measure of authority from the start. On the other hand this process involves the permission to local bodies to learn from experience, and experience includes the making, and amending, of blunders; and the question in practice is of the extent of the sacrifice of present efficiency consistent with the interests of the future. There is a point at which mistakes may ultimately do more harm than good: a bad blunder may not be worth its lesson, and some authorities may profit from experience more readily than others. It is here that the Board's inspector has the delicate task of deciding in every case first when and where he should attempt to give a lead, and when it is wiser to withhold his personality and to suffer what he feels to be the worse rather than to advise the immediately better. It would of course be bad statesmanship to withdraw from active counsel altogether; after all it is by the spreading of new views, and of communicating the desire for fresh measures, as well as by the teachings of experience, that the public is schooled to be capable of ever more difficult duties. But the imposition of advice from without, unless it is intelligently appropriated, brings either opposition or blind acquiescence and misconstruction, and may thus fail both in its immediate object and in its less direct but more important one of educating the public to higher things. The policy of the Board's inspector then is neither one of uncalculated reticence nor of preaching new faiths in and out of season. The question which he has to put himself at each opportunity for reform and progress is whether he can secure for it a willing as well as intelligent acquiescence. If so, and if (a second proviso) the measure or principle of action is right, then his contribution to public education in this wide sense has been made. A great deal of an inspector's thought and energy is directed, not to the inspection of schools, but to the quiet unobstrusive dissemination of new ideas. He is a sort of missionary of public progress. Over the luncheon table—and inspectors in big towns sometimes make a point of accommodating their luncheon place to that of members of local authorities or others—at casual meetings in train or street,

or at more formal conferences or discussions, he can seize or create the opportunity of suggesting new points of view, removing common misunderstandings, cultivating friendly relations, and generally of preparing the path of educational progress. Thus he needs in particular the power of getting into touch with diverse personalities, and not only, perhaps not so much, of logically persuading them, as of getting them to desire and to will the new. In the ideal he has to initiate initiative; and in the actual, at any rate, he must be able to communicate interest and understanding without giving offence. Results have often to be left to time to work out.

In dealing with local authorities or boards of management, who are not as a rule educational experts, the capacity is especially valuable of stating positions or proposing solutions of problems in simple untechnical language understanded of the people. To the 'practical' man the jargon of educational theory and the appeal to philosophical principle are alike suspect: the power must be present or acquired of detecting the kind of argument that will tell, and of disguising all abstract philosophy in homely clothing. To attempt to ram ultimate reasons down plain people's throats is worse than useless. For these reasons it will be understood that there is no place in the English inspectorate for the fanatic or the sheer idealist, and special intellectual brilliance would often go wasted. Far more serviceable personal qualities are a general high level of intelligence, an equable temper, a sociable manner, a steady enthusiasm, and plenty of industry and commonsense.

In the view of the Board of Education in particular His Majesty's inspector is an inquirer and investigator first, and secondarily a missionary of educational creeds. His prime function in his area is to discover the facts of the case, to render to the Board and to the authority a true account of all the educational circumstances. It is not ordinarily his concern to attempt to alter the facts unless he is called upon to do so, but he must be ready, when invited, to place his knowledge and his opinion at the local authority's disposal. He is thus in a real sense a servant of the public. On the other hand it would clearly be a mistake for a district inspector to restrain his enthusiasm completely: a keen officer cannot remain at grips with besetting problems without attempting their solution or suffering from a thwarted and a wasted personality if he is too much checked in doing so. And there are inspectors of long experience who hold that the result of a policy of with-

holding a central lead in education is not that the localities proceed to lead themselves but that no advance occurs at all. Perhaps the trend is on the whole in the direction of the local bodies seeking the help of the Board's inspector more than formerly, and trusting rather less to the advice of officers appointed by themselves, who are usually less highly qualified than the Board's inspectors, less widely experienced, and in the nature of the case able to offer their employers a less disinterested advice. If the event proves to be an increasing reliance upon outside expert help, or an increasing capacity for dispensing with it, the policy of considered non-intervention will be justified.

However that may be, from the account that has been given it will be clear how important in English inspectors is the possession of particular traits of personal character. For this reason the selection of inspecting officers must always be made by nomination and interview, not simply by examination, nor on the score of technical qualifications and testimonials. This is the case, of course, both in England and in India, where appointments are also not confirmed till two years' probation has further tested the suitability of the officer for his work.

In addition to this the practice in England at present is to give a newly appointed officer a more or less formal training in his work. The actual process of training appears to vary. In a typical case the officer is attached to some senior inspector for the purpose. He accompanies him in his visits to schools, and has an opportunity of watching his procedure, the reasons for which are explained to him where necessary. He is then given a share in the work himself, where his senior officer can mark or correct any obvious defects, in general or particular—unnecessary interference with the teaching, the pitching of his questions above the level of the class, insufficient attention to backward pupils, and so on. More particularly he learns with this guidance any views of the Board as to policy in general—the extent to which a direct lead should be given in the conduct of schools, the points at which it is prudent to apply pressure, and the methods by which local authorities can best be approached. He is entrusted with a certain amount of report writing, possibly with a special investigation, say of the main building requirements in a group of schools, and his reports are discussed and criticised. Meantime he is in frequent touch with other inspectors in his area, and can form impressions of their procedure and methods, and,

when his superior officer thinks fit, he becomes entrusted with independent inspections of his own. No change marks the close of the period of training; the newly appointed officer gradually assumes increasing responsibilities, the successive stages towards which vary in duration according to his capacity to undertake them. The officer in charge of this training sends reports of his progress to his chief inspector at headquarters with intimation of the special capacities in which he is most fitted to do well.

If in England a newly appointed inspector has a period of definite trial and training under a senior inspector, it seems clear that a special preparation for his work is even more needed for European officers appointed to serve in India, where an officer fresh from home is a stranger not only to the schools which he has to inspect, but also to the customs, and particularly to the colloquial language, of the people.

The language is not to be learnt by incidental preparation, in time spared from the routine of work for the passing of a departmental examination. Whether the first appointment be to a responsible position in a training college, or to the work of school inspection, the question may be ventured whether the first year of service in India spent with an executive district officer, or a missionary, or an English or Indian official touring in Indian villages, with the object of learning firstly, to converse with all and sundry, and secondly, all that it is possible to learn in the period of the customs and ways of Indian rural life, would not repay again and again the time assigned to it. How many European inspectors are now able easily to converse without an interpreter with teachers in village schools, or with the people of the village?

In addition to this, a temporary attachment to an experienced inspector for a few months before undertaking independent administration can save a young officer a good many blunders in his dealings with schools, with local bodies and managements, with other Government officers and departments, and in the control and conduct of an office.

CHAPTER III.

Inspecting Procedure in Elementary Schools.

In the period covered by the examination and payment-for-results system the immediate subject of inspection was the pupil, as grouped for the standard examination. The inspector was engaged in estimating individual results. An inspection —if the term be allowed—was accordingly so organised as to cover the examination of the pupils in each of the three elementary subjects in the least time. The inspecting officer brought with him printed arithmetic test cards which were rapidly distributed to one lot of pupils, and worked by them whilst he heard another set in mechanical reading aloud. The same procedure was observed in the matter of writing and dictation, and the practical question was one of so arranging the oral and written tests as to keep all the pupils busy all the time, without letting any group exceed the limit of time proper to the test in question. The inspecting officer was provided with a schedule of all the examinees, and entered marks against their names for their reading as he heard it, and for their dictation and arithmetic as rapidly as they could be assessed on the spot. This was not difficult, as the tests were so framed as to facilitate a mechanical evaluation—the sums were either right or wrong, and the totting of spelling mistakes in dictation and a rough assessment of the handwriting was the work of a moment. As might be expected, the sub-inspector of those days became rapidly efficient in framing for schools of every size inspection time-tables for expediting the examinations without a hitch.

Very different was the procedure encouraged in the early nineteen hundreds. The pendulum swung from one extreme to the other. The examination of results gave way to the inspection of methods. The teacher was now the immediate focus of the inspector's attention rather than the pupil; and the teacher, no longer the slave of a routine, but free to pick and choose amongst subjects and curricula, and to teach the class in the way he thought best. There was a period indeed in which the inspector was definitely instructed to abstain from interrupting the class or teacher at work; he was to hold as it were a watching brief for the Government, and to base his judgment of the school upon the impression thus gathered of its

ordinary work. This policy of masterly inactivity threatened unfortunate results. So far as official instructions were obeyed it encouraged slackness in an inspector and plausibility in a teacher. One way of gauging the worth of a school—its discipline, and spirit, and methods of teaching, may be to observe that school as it is ordinarily carried on. To interrupt the work is no doubt to disturb the very process you are observing. But this argument overlooks the presence of the inspector—however inconspicuous he may make himself. The mere consciousness of his presence introduces a new atmosphere. He is in the nature of the case the last person who can see a school as it ordinarily goes on. The question which he has to answer, is not whether he shall disturb the school work, but what kind of disturbance will best serve his purpose. If his purpose be appraisement, mere non-interruption is likely to defeat it. A teacher whose work is being adjudged simply by what another sees him at the time doing, takes care, if he is sensible, to show himself at his most impressive. He is anxious to display his powers of teaching, and those—of course—are most obviously displayed, and in a form which the onlooker can judge most quickly, in the oral lesson. The adroit teacher consequently turns on his pet subjects—and sometimes a specially reserved (or even rehearsed) lesson—for the inspector's edification, while his less sophisticated colleague resorts to oral revision of past work.

To raise non-interference to a principle is also to limit the range of the inspection to what may be going on at the time; but a due appraisement demands an investigation of essentials, not just of the happenings of the moment.

Whatever be their causal relation, the fashions of observational inspection and of mainly oral teaching came in together. The period of examination of the pupils was followed by a reaction. In the pupil ability now became the important thing, not mere acquisition, to be gained by the exercise of thought not of memory. Everything turned upon the processes employed in awakening intelligence and training ability. Hence the efficiency of a school was to be gauged by a study of the teacher teaching, not of the pupil learning. The process of teaching was for the time identified with the process of conducting an oral lesson. Clearly the teacher is not teaching when the pupil is working his arithmetic and the teacher is sitting at his desk. Hence the fashion of the oral lesson and with it the inspecting method—as a means of appraising the tuition in a school—of watching the teacher at work.

The logical application of this principle revolutionises the inspection procedure. Instead of rearranging the whole school for examination, distributing tasks to each standard, and superintending operations with the aid of the staff, the inspector will be found seated inconspicuously in classroom corners, while the teacher—supposed to be doing his ordinary work—delivers an oral lesson to the class. After a time the inspector rises, makes his way to another room, where he finds another lesson in progress, and so continues his perambulation gathering what impressions he may. This type of inspection procedure, it will be noticed, is almost diametrically opposed to the first. But neither of these programmes, of course, was regularly carried out 'in toto.' The examination was in point of fact tempered by some inquiry, on the part of the inspector, as to the teaching procedure, and there was oral investigation of subjects other than the three R's. And inspection of the second type probably never occurred unmodified by at least some discussion with the teacher or even a little questioning of the class. But the inspection practice had shifted from one pole towards the other by the early years of the present century.

With the cessation before 1905 of instructions to inspectors as to procedure, inspectors are now largely free to follow their own lines in inspecting; methods vary with individual aptitude or preference, and generalisation is less safe and more difficult. A point of importance as affecting procedure is the freedom now accorded to inspectors to pay visits when and where they will. The fixed annual formal inspection is a thing of the past. It is thus open to an officer to vary his procedure with the circumstances of the case. Most district inspectors in normal times attempt some more or less thorough inspection of each elementary school in their areas once every three or four years. At this inspection an endeavour is made to gain a fair estimate of the school's worth at the time, and to point out the directions in which it may make progress. In a typical case the district inspector has one or two assistants with him and the work is distributed according to their individual aptitudes. Investigation of registers—the more mechanical part of the work—is as a rule left to an assistant, while the inspector talks over with the headmaster his time-table and schemes of work, or any changes in staff, building or other arrangements effected or desired.

In this and in the conduct of his inspection throughout he has to guide him a file of notes upon the school, accumulated

since his last inspection, as well as any inspection report actually published. It has been explained elsewhere that it is not the practice of inspectors to write periodical reports upon schools except so far as they are necessary for the special purpose of informing authorities of the school's progress or for assisting the headmaster and teachers in their work. The inspector however when he visits the school naturally wishes to be informed of its state and progress in more detail than in given in an occasional report. The practice consequently obtains of writing notes for private record at each visit, kept in a single file in charge usually of the assistant inspector in whose area the school lies, to whom accordingly notes made by any other colleague are sent. Any inspecting officer visiting the school can thus obtain, and have the benefit of, this school file before the day of his visit. The Board of Education issues a special form for the notes in question.

At his general inspection, accordingly, the inspector will be guided by his knowledge of the school obtained from his own recollections and the written comments of colleagues, and the completeness and character of his inspection are thus determined. It is very rare that an attempt is made to measure the teaching of the school in every class and every subject. This may be undertaken in the case of a specially inefficient school, where the inspector wishes to make quite certain of his ground before issuing an unfavourable report. More usually he will share the work with his assistants on the principle of apportioning to them, amongst the subjects which he wishes to investigate, those in which they are most proficient. It is common to arrange that each teacher's work will be seen by more than one inspecting officer. This double object is effected by one inspector, for example, by distributing the inspection work classwise in the morning and subjectwise in the afternoon; an arrangement which, where it is practicable, has the additional advantage of enabling an inspector to consider the relations of other subjects to that with which he is specially charged.

The work apportioned, the actual classroom procedure, the actual method, that is to say, which the inspecting officer adopts for measuring the instruction in any case, varies—as has been mentioned—with the individual. It is however fairly safe to say that the inspector of to-day seldom confines his attention either to testing the pupil's attainments or to investigating the teacher's methods. It is a rule to set some written work to be done by the pupils, more particularly in

arithmetic and composition, and perhaps it is fair to say that the sub-inspector of old days—the man who grew up with the examination system and was appointed to inspecting work before examinations ceased—has a bent for devising ingenious and often penetrating tests of a pupil's conversance with the rules of arithmetic and for a wholesome insistence upon thoroughness and accuracy in written work generally.

The investigation of a teacher's aims and methods, useful as it may be in helping to an estimate of the school's work—especially of the intelligence that is shown in combining the development of a common school spirit and policy with freedom of action in the individual teacher and in choice, and adaptation to circumstances, of curricula and syllabuses and lessons,—and in getting to know the individual teacher, claims to-day very tactful handling. It is important to maintain and even strengthen the teacher's sense of responsibility for his own teaching, and thus to avoid at all costs injuring his self-respect. A teacher is accordingly expected to have consciously determined his ideals and procedure, and to have substantial reasons for his choice. The inspector therefore commonly adopts the attitude not so much of critic as of learner—he wishes to discover what the teaching is all about; though of course a sensible teacher on his side will also naturally be anxious to avail himself of the inspector's wider experience in suggesting further improvements or fresh ideas. Hence the inquiry into method usually takes the form of joint discussion, rather than of considered criticism, or, if criticism is offered, it is in the guise of suggestion supplied by the way, or, say, of the description of some plan or device found successful elsewhere, and in which the teacher would be naturally interested. The assumption is that teacher and inspector are equally concerned to co-operate in furthering a common cause. Another point which the inspector has to consider is the effect of his procedure upon the general discipline of the school. The greater freedom amongst children, the cult of individuality, in home and school life, has been accompanied by some loss of respect and consideration for elders. In the West, as also in the East, the teacher once claimed a peculiar deference and respect as an embodiment of learning. This peculiar spirit of reverence has been lost in the West, and is, alas, a dying tradition in the East also. The close personal relation, often of affection, that used to subsist between teacher and pupil has been unable to withstand a general system of large classes and publicly paid and trained teachers. The inspector—the servant of the State—has to be

careful to do nothing by word or deed to accentuate a bad tendency; rather in the classroom he must do what he can to restore prestige and esteem to the teacher's position. Any obvious criticism of a teacher before the class would defeat this object; but it is possible by manner and tone and by giving to the class its due of responsibility for its own attainments, to support the teacher and strengthen the discipline of the school. The attitude of inspectors, as a whole, certainly expresses consciousness of the need of care and tact in this respect.

Many inspectors at the present time lay a good deal of emphasis upon written tests in subjects other than the three R's especially in history and geography. The internal examinations conducted by head teachers have hitherto been mainly restricted to the elementary subjects, in continuation of the traditions handed down from the days of formal examinations by the inspector. The ordinary instruction in history and geography is also largely oral, often by means of reading books, so that they are apt to escape written test altogether. Hence there is good reason for extending the written examinations at the inspection to those subjects, both to encourage attention to them generally and as an example to the teacher. For measures or devices employed by an inspector at his inspection often have more direct influence upon the teaching than hints or suggestions verbally given.

The written work given at inspections of this character is seldom assessed by the inspector on the spot. The preliminary marking is as a rule left to the teacher, but it is the custom of inspectors to take much written work home, where they can not only check the standard of the working, but as far as time admits analyse the papers for prevalent merits and defects. There is no doubt that the careful analysis of written work can be made a valuable means of appraising the tuition. Besides enabling the examiner to apply a common measure to the pupil's attainments, a written paper can reveal not only defects or merits in the pupil, but some characteristics of the teaching. A study of compositions can show how far a pupil has been taught to think, properly set papers in geography and history can discover special methods employed in teaching these subjects, the more so if the teacher be allowed to set one or two of the questions himself. A good deal of 'examination' of papers of this kind is now undertaken by inspectors, though the extent to which analysis can be carried naturally varies with the time at disposal.

The question arises whether the inspection does not usually include an investigation of the question and the answer papers of the ordinary internal examinations conducted by the staff. Question papers are an invaluable index of the ideals and intelligence of the teacher in regard to his subject, and those and the written answers show the standards aimed at and reached, and faithfully reflect the character of the teaching. It is obvious however that to serve the object adequately, the circumstances of the examination must be clearly known and defined; and as yet, for reasons given in the chapter on this subject, this valuable aid to inspection is not generally included in the inspector's repertoire. He prefers to conduct informal examinations of his own.

In addition to the testing of pupils the more detailed inspection includes some separate inquiry into the processes and aims of the instruction. Noticeably little regard is paid as a rule to the minor technique of teaching. Simultaneous answering and the 'forest of hands' are discouraged, but there are many details which generally escape overt remark; such, for instance, as the position of the teacher when engaged in an oral lesson, the proper presentation and due distribution of questions, the seating of individual pupils with regard to size, sight, and hearing, the condition and use of the blackboard, the position of the pupil writing on it (he often stands between the blackboard and the class) the proper holding of books when reading, or the correct posture of pupils when seated or writing at their desks. There are of course reasons for this. Many of the technical details in question are exhibited most conspicuously in the oral class lesson, and as this has of late been giving way to quiet desk study, occasions are fewer when the minutiæ of formal instruction come in for notice. Apart from this, the proportion amongst inspectors of trained teachers is not very high, and the inspector with a public school and university education is attracted more by the broader problems of his work than by the detailed technique of teaching. In areas where the local authority employs its own inspectors, the Board's inspectors also generally feel that the details of inspection should be left to the local body, and that the Board's officers are more usefully occupied in taking a wider survey of education in their area than in repeating what is being done by others. It is more frequent therefore to find inspecting officers discussing the wider questions of curriculum, modifications in the subjects or syllabuses adapted to the circumstances, especially the social or economic circumstances, of the school than to hear

comments passed upon the smaller items in a teacher's paraphernalia. Methods of teaching particular subjects get their share of attention, but as a rule—if my experience is sufficient to justify an induction—they are dealt with incidentally, as some special merit or defect is revealed from an examination of the pupils or their records, rather than as a subject an inquiry into which is justified as a regular separate item in an inspection.

There is perhaps something to be said for a plan of inspection (whatever the subject) which begins with a teacher's ideas, or his practice in presenting his subject, and then goes on to study its effects upon the pupils. Such a procedure has at any rate the merit of anticipating the inspector's own preconceptions of how the subject in question should be handled, and would disarm the criticism—passed often by headmasters—that their pupils are frequently tested by methods which imply a type of teaching to which they have not been accustomed. An inspector for instance who sets a test in composition by writing the opening sentences of a succession of paragraphs, which the pupils are then to complete, may be unfairly disappointed with the work of a class in which another practice in composition—equally effectual—has been the rule. An unfamiliar treatment of a class is no doubt justifiable as an experiment (though experiments are as a rule best left to the teachers themselves) or as an illustration of a new device or principle that seems to deserve trial. It is indeed one of an inspector's functions to make suggestions of this kind. The mistake occurs when he combines in one and the same exercise a test of the pupil's capacities and an illustration of a fresh idea.

In setting written work it is common for inspecting officers who are aware of the tendency to test a class by unfamiliar methods, to allow the teacher to set some questions himself, and in oral testing to let the teacher open the subject and to continue the questioning along his lines; or, again, the written tests before being given are submitted to the teacher for possible objection. The nature of the objections raised is often in itself an indication of the teacher's own estimate of the powers or adaptability of his class.

It will be gathered from what has been said, that modern inspection in elementary schools preserves a mean between the extreme methods of testing the pupils' attainments and of watching the teachers at work. Certainly in the more detailed inspections, when an estimate of a school's condition and pro-

gress is desired, the balance of attention goes to the pupils, on the results of whose written work and oral answering not only can their positive attainments be measured, but a great deal can be discovered as to the success of the teaching in awakening intelligence, quickness, and resource, and something incidentally as to methods of teaching employed. Written tests are regarded as an essential element in inspections of this kind, for by them only can you be certain of including in your judgment the weaker as well as the average and stronger sections in a class. Impressions gained from oral questioning are often quite misleading, especially so in the remoter country schools, where the pupils are unused to newcomers, and to the quick play of life in busy towns. Rural children, who appear less sharp than town children, and answer oral questions slowly and with effort, often reveal in their written work deeper and steadier powers of thought. The question in practice is as to the extent to which the written testing should go; how written answers are best treated and the amount of written work in any case that is necessary for a fair estimate. In some cases a couple of questions in arithmetic, and a page of composition, has to suffice; in one district it is usual to give five questions in an arithmetic test, and written tests sometimes extend beyond the two R's. But as a rule the two questions which the written tests set out to answer of a pupil are 'What can he do in his mathematics?' and 'How can he express his thoughts?' The compositions may of course themselves incidentally test his standard in other subjects. Drawings are also sometimes done. For 'practical' subjects in the upper classes—gardening, for instance, and handwork—the inspector usually relies upon the manner in which the pupils set to work, upon the answers to questions upon their practice or its principles or the nature or extent of their independent observations or experiments, upon records and samples of work done, and upon the active interest shown.

In this connection it is convenient to make a distinction between the more detailed inspection of the district inspecting staff and the visits casually paid by the individual inspecting officer. At visits of the latter type more attention is generally paid to the school in its ordinary working. There is less formal testing, less written work specially given, more simple observation; and conversation with the teachers is less severely to the point. No rule of procedure can of course be formulated, for this naturally varies with the special object in view. As a rule the effects of any recommendation made at the last inspec-

tion are especially noticed, and points that arise incidentally are talked over; a more or less formal test may be held of certain subjects or classes, as the results of the last iuspection or the inspector's general knowledge of the school's requirements suggest. These iuformal visits however ofteu preseut a favourable opportunity for evaluating the more practical side of the school's activities; half an hour with a group of pupils in the garden at the right season cau give a very fair idea of their practical acquaiutance with gardening, and an expert can learn a good deal from watching the handling of the workshop tools, and questioning a pupil on the objects and method of his work. Such informal visits at any rate serve to correct and complete impressions gained at more formal inspections, and to result in a fairer and more confidently written report.

But if in particular they reduce the risk, that attends the single incomplete inspection, of overlooking important features or peculiarities iu a school's work, and so of a one-sided appraisement; yet in point of fact where a series of partial inspections aims more at continuity—at following up previous lines of inquiry or checking past impressions—than at comprehensiveness, it is quite possible for some serious matters to remain concealed for years together.

A detailed inspection, the object of which is to form a fair estimate of the condition of the school as a whole, seldom takes less than a day even in a small country school. Iuspectors whom I have questioued on the subject agree roughly in their estimates of the time required for inspections with this object. A school of one hundred pupils or less can scarcely be evaluated by two inspectors in less than a day of four or five hours. A school of five or six hundred may take three men as mauy as three days. Four or five officers might require the inside of a week for a school of one thousand pupils and three departments.

Where the time for inspection has to be curtailed, the reduction, in ordinary cases, is made otherwise than with the top classes, for in English schools, where the bulk of the pupils are constant, it is the older pupils that best exhibit the summary influences of the school's work throughout.

This estimate does not assume an investigation into every subject in every class, but is sufficient for a discovery of the main strength and weakuess in a school, and a more thorough inquiry into any subjects or branches of the school life that in the course of inspection are found to require it. Every

member of the staff and every class of pupil will have received enough attention to give a fair measure of their general progress, though it is always possible that some minor development or deficiency or feature of the school's life may escape notice. The spirit and character—the inner life—of the school are gathered incidentally by unconscious absorption of its atmosphere as much as by deliberate observation of particular traits or of the machinery of discipline, or—as it may be put—of the extent to which the spirit of discipline replaces its machinery. The general organisation of the school—the system of classification, of distribution of work amongst the staff, the arrangement of the time-table, and perhaps the syllabuses—may form an item in the inspecting programme for separate discussion with the head teacher or members of the staff. It should be possible to gain a fairly just idea of the working of this organisation within the time given, but final conclusions are often only possible after a series of visits extending over some period. But the single inspection can at least reveal any marked excellence or error in organisation. It is important to note that inspectors do not as a body trust either to single visits or the opinions of single officers when forming their official estimate of a school. The continuity of inspection work is indeed a feature of the system. One visit prepares the way for another, and the impressions gathered at one inspection help to determine the procedure at the next. Very frequently a line of inquiry is opened up at one visit; it often happens that an officer leaves a school doubtful as to its welfare in certain aspects—he suspects the practical work of overshadowing the intellectual subjects, or he is doubtful of the extent to which the pupils are trained in independent observation, or he is impressed with something unusual in the attitude of the pupils towards their teachers and their work, and wishes to obtain a deeper insight into the secret of its success. The English inspector is rightly cautions of committing himself to writing until he is sure of his facts, and the report that he submits to the Board of Education is practically of an inspection conducted by two or three officers, and at different intervals.

N.B.—A characteristic of English elementary school inspection, which reduces the labour if not the time involved is the inspector's relief from the business of filling or scrutinizing forms. He may call for elaborate statistics if he needs them, but as a rule an entry made on the spot of the school numbers, accommodation, and staff, occupying him five to ten minutes, is found to serve the purposes of his visit. There is room, on the back of the form in use, for such general observations or notes on separate subjects as he may care to enter afterwards. And the registers which he or his assistant may examine are usually the ordinary current records of the school; there is no elaborate preparation of special schedules against his visit.

Special measures are also taken to facilitate continuity of policy where an inspector leaves one district for another. At this time he hands over to his successor full papers on each school, together with a statement giving a general estimate of the condition of his area as a whole, with particular emphasis upon its past achievement and its existing deficiencies.

Apart from securing greater justice of estimate, however, continuity in inspection is indispensable for the due progress of the school. A series of independent inspections following a uniform routine in procedure with little regard to the comments passed at previous inspections or the ground covered by other inspectors, besides wasting an inspector's time, leaves the school without satisfactory guidance. Continuity of inspection means—or at least encourages—continuity of policy within the school; one inspector can follow up the work of another, and the progress of the school can be watched along given lines. This need not mean that other aspects of the work will be disregarded. Independent inspections, which aim at covering the school's work in every item, too often result in ignoring the influence of past recommendations, while adding fresh ones in matters not previously noticed. The head teacher pays the less heed to suggestions which he thinks will not be followed up, or for special attention to which he may receive no special credit; when the winds blow variously he cannot tell how to set his sail. The policy of comprehensive inspection, with even emphasis upon every subject or school pursuit, is one deliberately avoided in English elementary school inspection. Where inspection of this kind affects the school's progress, it must tend to result in an evenness and uniformity of character that makes no allowance for special lines of development. The policy of the English inspectorate on the other hand is definitely to encourage individuality in schools, and to promote to watch and in some measure to control the development of special lines of activity or the imparting of a special character or bent to the work as a whole. Experiment within reason is fostered; dullness and uniformity are even discountenanced. A divisional inspector has actually said that he would mistrust a school which aimed at an even level of excellence all along the line. The inspection that seeks for special characteristics is calculated to foster individuality in schools; the inspection that attempts to attend to everything tends rather to maintain uniformity. A careful policy of continuity in inspections of the first type will result in preserving the special character in a school; while inspections of the second type—if they are also

discontinuous—stimulate at best a number of spasmodic outgrowths that never mature.

Some English inspectors occasionally follow their detailed inspections with staff meetings. The practice however is not general, and opinions as to the usefulness of these meetings vary. There is the view for instance that all that has to be said of general school concern can be said to the head teacher as he accompanies the inspector in the school, or in private conversation, while there is no point in holding a staff meeting for the various comments that concern particular members of the staff; they are indeed better communicated in the circumstances that suggest them on the spot. An inspector here and there however makes a special point of meeting the staff as a body, on the ground that the teachers have a better opportunity than is afforded in the classroom of presenting their position in any matter of importance, when they have also had time to consider in its practical bearings any advice that has been offered, while a staff meeting can often give a headmaster who requires it the inspector's explicit support. Such meetings however are probably an invariable rule nowhere; in some districts they are pretty generally held, in others they are resorted to only when exceptional reasons seem to require them.

The value of the staff meeting cannot indeed be considered in the abstract. It may vary for instance with the characteristics of the staffs. In a busy town area, for example, except as an integral part of an inspection, an occasional meeting of head teachers or specially interested assistants for an educational chat may be more practicable and successful than a more general or formal conference. It varies again with the aptitude of the individual inspector for using this instrument in his work. And individual inspectors' verdicts on their value also vary accordingly.

CHAPTER IV.

Co-ordination.

1. Introductory.

The term co-ordination may here serve to cover a number of specific means for securing economy of effort through co-operation amongst the Board's inspecting staff, or between inspecting officers and outside educational agents.

Agreement as to the general principles of policy and as to the treatment or solution of practical problems as they arise, and the communication of fresh ideas or experiments—the measures taken to obtain these objects, firstly between different officers within a given branch of the inspectorate, secondly between different branches of educational officers or agencies, form the common topic of most of the following chapter. Incidentally, and more especially in the concluding sections, reference is made to certain portion of the educational field where the activities of different branches of the inspectorate overlap or fail to meet.

To consider first the subject of co-ordination within the elementary branch of the inspectorate.

The pivot of the inspecting system in elementary education is the district inspector in his district as being the immediately responsible representative of the Board of Education in one of the eighty odd areas into which England is divided. Though free within wide limits to arrange the work of district inspection as he thinks fit and to suit his arrangements and his methods, and to some extent his aims, in inspection to his individual tastes or convictions, it remains true that the great body of inspectors are—perhaps largely unconsciously—animated by a common spirit, a common conception of their special responsibilities, and to a great extent a community of emphasis upon certain special lines of advance in schools.

This is not due to any rigidity in the structure of the inspectorate nor in the methods of subdividing the work. The structure of the inspectorate is in no way rigid: inspectors no longer depend upon formal instructions from Whitehall prescribing procedure in schools, or the organisation of district inspection, or the special policies to be followed, or points to which attention must be paid. And at the same time subject

to a formal ostensibly triennial 'Treasury' visit to each school, the inspector is free both in arranging his programme and in promoting the interest of education on lines of his own.

In the absence of rigid prescription the reason lies partly in the existence of common national ideals but especially in a variety of measures deliberately adopted by different inspectors to promote unity of action within their areas. One method for instance by which opinions and impressions and experience are conveyed up and down the inspecting hierarchy is that of conference more or less formal. Plans are arranged in every district for bringing the inspecting staff into touch with one another. The schemes vary in detail. In a typical rural district the inspector in charge assigns to each of three assistants separate areas, to which in the main they keep throughout the year. He himself visits each area either alone or in company of the area inspecting officer, and also holds conferences of his inspecting staff once or perhaps more often in the year. Besides these opportunities of discussing points of common interest, or of consulting the district inspector as occasions arise, more or less intermittent opportunities occur for co-operative inspection of schools, which give different officers a glimpse of, if not an insight into, one another's methods. In one rural district, for example, with a large seaport town, the assistants so arrange programmes as to admit of joint inspection of certain large urban schools, reserved from the area of one of them for the purpose.

In rural areas, especially wide districts with numbers of small rural schools, the assistant inspecting staff have, however, as a rule, fewer chances of contact than elsewhere, though an inspector can always create, whether by formal conference or otherwise, opportunities for social meetings or exchange of views amongst the staff. In urban districts the distribution of work is sometimes other than territorial, and may be deliberately changed from time to time. Separate officers may be responsible for particular groups of schools, chosen perhaps according to type or grade, or the same schools may be visited by several officers from different points of view. In a system which is free and elastic it is easy to consider special personal qualifications or preferences in arranging the work, so long as the head of the district is careful to keep familiar with the district as a whole. In any case the proximity of schools in town areas to one another makes frequent meeting of inspecting officers natural; they often have a common luncheon place,

and can thus compare notes informally. And in such areas joint inspection is the more frequent, both because the schools are larger and demand it and because less travelling is entailed. Informal meetings are then supplemented by more formal discussions as points arise which seem to need more deliberate treatment.

In one district (a number of boroughs scattered over the country district of another inspector) communication is so short and easy as to admit of a weekly meeting at headquarters and of joint inspections being conducted in different parts of the district on two days in every week.

As with the district, so—broadly speaking—with the division. The divisional inspector over his area follows a somewhat similar plan of conferences and district touring. Besides being the senior officer for one of the nine divisions in England, he is as a rule assigned a small district of his own; he is in fact a district inspector with special responsibilities over a number of other districts. When divisions were first created in England the divisional officer was expected to help in standardising the annual examinations, but had in practice little actual authority over his district colleagues. Latterly however his authority has been made more substantial. Appointments and promotions of officers in his area are subject to his recommendation, and yearly increments in salary to his check. He is becoming a regular channel of communication on matters of importance between district officials and headquarters; reports submitted from districts pass through his hands. He arranges for the effective training of newly appointed officers. It is his business to keep in touch with local authorities. Consequently his influence in co-ordinating the work throughout his division has increased. Besides his district work, for which a full inspector may be attached to him as assistant, he tours through his division, viewing the inspection work of each district inspector for a month or so in the year, and getting into touch with that of the district inspector's assistants. He visits schools with his district colleague, and thus can communicate or exchange views on particular schools on the spot, while incidentally influencing the district policy or procedure. This direction of policy so far as it goes is informal, and often perhaps hardly deliberate; the divisional inspector will scarcely go beyond advice; he is consulted, rather than gives orders. Nor does he interfere with the arrangements made between the district inspector and his assistants; but he has to be acquainted with the assistants and their manner of work and to form an

opinion of their capabilities. While in this way in the course of his peregrinations he can spread his influence over the division as a whole, and can carry experience and expedients from one part of it to another, he also holds an annual conference of officers on subjects that arise during the year. The exact composition of such a conference may vary—it may be a meeting of inspectors from other branches besides the elementary. A conference in the north-west division, for example, held in 1914 included twelve elementary, three secondary, and five technical inspectors. The divisional meetings may thus serve to co-ordinate work not only amongst the officers of one branch but between the different branches. The agenda of this conference will indicate certain points in which co-ordination between these different branches was required. It included these topics:—

(1) The needs of each local area in regard to elementary, secondary, and technical education.

(2) The training of teachers;
   (*a*) Student teachers;
   (*b*) The connection of His Majesty's inspectors with training colleges;
   (*c*) The training of teachers in evening schools.

(3) The inspection of evening schools by inspectors of other branches.

A little later another conference was held of inspectors on the elementary side, attended by the Board of Education's Assistant Secretary for education, by the Chief Inspector for elementary schools, by eleven district inspectors, five women inspectors, and four subordinate officers, the inspector for the division presiding. This composition facilitates the direct expression of opinions from the bottom to the top of the inspecting hierarchy, and enables the chief inspector or the permanent official to present the Board's views or policy to officers of every grade direct or to gather information directly from them.

Besides the district and divisional meetings there is also an annual meeting of divisional inspectors and the chief inspector at Whitehall, which completes the scale of formal interchanges of view, and thus brings together data or opinions on problems culled from the whole of England. And the chief inspector for elementary education makes regular tours in the provinces, thus keeping himself directly in touch with local conditions and needs.

It must not be gathered from what has been said that this system of formal meetings is rigidly adhered to or is the only kind of conference held. The conference method of comparing experience is adapted to circumstances, and is not necessarily of inspectors only. Meetings have in some areas been arranged between the Board's and the 'local' inspecting staffs, to arrive for example at some agreement as to distribution of inspection work, or a meeting may be arranged of inspecting officers and teachers, when the machinery of the national union of teachers is sometimes utilised for the purpose. Some inspectors believe in conferences, others do not, and apart from the district and divisional conferences mentioned no rule can be laid down.

Besides occasional meetings at divisional conferences district inspectors sometimes visit one another's areas. This may be done rarely by set arrangement for the purpose of comparing local conditions or procedure, usually by invitation of a district inspector who wishes assistance in some branch of his work in which his neighbour is the better qualified. Few inspecting officers are without some special subject or aspect of their work in which they were proficient either before appointment or have specially interested themselves afterwards. Thus a district inspector who is not satisfied with the state of the science work in some large school may ask assistance from a scientific neighbour, or if school gardens have been lately started in his county may ask a more proficient colleague to see one or two schools with him and assist him with advice. For special subjects, however, there are specialist inspectors appointed for large areas to whom it would usually be the obvious course to apply, and probably a more common case in which a colleague is called in from a neighbouring district is that of the inspection of an inefficient school in which the district inspector wishes to correct or verify his opinion from outside. There is no regular scheme by which district inspectors see one another's work.

The same comment is true of course of divisional inspectors (who most nearly correspond to English district inspectors) in India. Here no doubt as in England, inspectors in different areas of the same province come into occasional contact chiefly at conferences at headquarters, and sometimes consult one another in writing upon petty points of procedure not regulated by the department or upon the merits of applicants for appointments. Inspectors in different provinces however, seldom meet, and possibly an arrangement by which an inspector from

one province could be temporarily associated with his fellow in another, would result in a useful comparison of experience and practice, with economy in the solution of problems common to both.

Another means of harmonizing policy is through the formulation and communication of special points of inquiry on the part of the district inspector for his subordinate staff. This plan varies from rather vague indications of what may be worth more attention in each area, made orally at some informal meeting, to a detailed programme of points for guidance under headings issued in the form of a circular. In this way an attack may be made upon school time-tables in one year, upon internal examinations in another, or upon the type of work and the means of classification proper to infant schools in a third; so that, in addition to the regular routine of inspection, attention is focussed successively on particular branches of inspecting work, and general principles in regard to these can then be evolved. The pursuit of special lines of inquiry is—as has been mentioned—generally encouraged, and in one division the divisional inspector commonly circulates through his area for comments the special subject report submitted him, and then repeats its circulation with the comments attached. And it is the practice in every division to circulate an annual selection of reports of all kinds written in the division, that each inspecting officer may note the points to which his fellows are attending and their manner of treating them as gathered from the reports.

Lastly, an important means of acquainting officers in one division with what is being done in other parts of England, and in suggesting lines of inquiry or advance common to the whole country, lies in the frequent issue by the Board of Education of reports and pamphlets on educational subjects. Apart from the papers for general publication—to which reference may be made to the chapter on Reports—the Board occasionally issues privately to its officers reports upon important topics treated by inspectors in special areas. An instance of these are the reports upon internal examinations, of which two have been issued, based upon separate inquiries in the north-west and the metropolitan division; and a report upon classification and organisation in schools recently prepared in the north-west division.

The measures of co-ordination enumerated above relate more especially to the elementary branch of the Board's inspectors.

The secondary school inspectorate has a smaller personnel and a simpler structure. The need for a formal system of conferences is the less, as the 'group' or full inspection which is the characteristic form of secondary school inspection, draws together inspectors from some distance and the meetings held at particular schools raise, in their particular application, problems common to the whole country. It is also usual to locate in neighbouring areas men with different special proficiencies, and it is not uncommon for an inspector to invite his neighbour's advice upon syllabuses or other questions relating to his special subject. On the other hand topics dealt with incidentally and in their bearing on single institutions might often gain by separate treatment on their own merits, and the 'group' inspections avoid calling upon men from widely distant areas. General formal conferences of the secondary school inspectorate do not however form an integral part of its working organisation.

As women inspectors are incorporated in the general system and participate in the inspection of elementary schools, mention of them should not be omitted here. Women inspectors exist for every type and grade of education, but the majority are employed either as general inspectors of elementary (and five of secondary) schools, or as inspectors of domestic subjects. In the former capacity they are attached, as His Majesty's Inspectors, to districts, and work in co-operation with, and under the general guidance of, the district inspector, though they are responsible for their own inspection programmes. Their field of work includes infant departments, girls' schools, and mixed schools, but this does not exclude male inspection from these, and a woman inspector may accompany a man inspector to a boys' school. No woman holds full charge of a district; she usually works independently over her area, but does some of her work in common with the male staff; and shares in the meetings or other measures of district and divisional co-ordination.

A number of women inspectors also work separately over large areas for the inspection of centres and classes for elementary school children in domestic subjects, and as such are less closely in touch with the district inspecting staffs or organisation. But as the 'domestic subjects' become more customary in ordinary schools, it is possible that this distinction in the women inspectorate may gradually lapse. There are also women inspectors of training colleges, of technical schools, and of physical exercises in general schools. The whole body

of women inspectors is grouped under a Chief Woman Inspector, and holds a divisional conference under her presidency with the Chief Inspector of elementary schools present. And in this way the women inspectorate forms a cross division on a basis of sex through the different branches of the male inspectorate based on subject or type of school; and thus serves in each branch to concentrate attention on educational subjects of feminine interest. An example of a women inspectors' conference is given in the chapter on Special Movements (p. 123). The conditions of appointment, training, and probation are essentially the same for women inspectors as for His Majesty's inspectors generally, but they are on a lower scale of pay.

2. Relation between the Elementary and the Secondary branch.

The remarks passed above deal mainly with the means of promoting unity of aim and action between officers within a given branch of the inspectorate. But where the chief breaks in the inspecting system occur is not within the different branches of the inspectorate but between one branch and another. English education has naturally reached a stage of greater specialization than is the case so far in India, and the process of differentiation, unless carefully guarded, easily results in separate, almost watertight, compartments. An ideal educational fabric preserves continuity of policy and arrangement both between each stage of education and between the different types of education at each stage; there is no crossing and no gap—a pupil can reach the highest grade of formal education without breaks or duplications, and can prepare for any vocation with exact economy of time and effort. But though English education has—especially since the Act of 1902—been full of life and energy, the structure is loosely knit.

It would thus seem an advantage for the Government supervision to be so organised as to bear upon the connections in the structure, as much as upon the individual parts. But the logic of history has tended rather in the latter direction. Inspectors, equally with schools, specialize. Owing largely to the overweight of elementary education at the bottom of the scale, it has not yet seemed practicable to unite the different branches of education under single inspection, and the inspectorate is divided into elementary, secondary, technical and medical branches, all separately staffed. The question therefore of the

opportunities and arrangements for co-operation between officers in the separate branches is a serious one.

It would seem unfortunate therefore that meetings between elementary and secondary school inspectors are incidental and occasional. The attention of each officer is naturally centred upon his own grade of school, and an elementary inspector usually invites the company of his secondary colleague, or *vice versâ*, chiefly when he needs help for inspecting some school in his area. In this way it is common for elementary inspectors, especially if they have special subjects, to give help in the full inspections of secondary schools. It is in the nature of the case less usual for secondary school inspectors to visit elementary schools, though nothing prevents an elementary inspector inviting assistance should he need it.

In either case however the point of importance is that the mind centres, not upon the connection between the two grades of education or upon the problems arising therefrom, but upon the particular concerns of separate schools. This distinction is not to be pressed too far, for questions of the relation between the two grades of education naturally arise at such meetings, but there is no regular machinery for their full consideration.

The problem is partly one of time. Officers charged with different branches of education naturally attend mainly to their respective branches, and are sparing of time or opportunities for considering the ground that lies between them—more sparing indeed that a true economy of time suggests. The occasional divisional conferences at which inspectors from different branches meet do not go far enough; they are too intermittent and general in character. There is not enough co-operation over questions that arise here and there at the time that they are warm in the mind—the co-ordination of syllabuses in an elementary and secondary school, or the reconciliation of difference in methods of teaching for the sake of prospective secondary pupils; the amount and kind of out-of-school work for pupils; the arrangement of examination courses; the comparative order of urgency in which the provision of new buildings for either grade should be pressed upon the local authority; the association that might subsist between the school staffs; and so on.

Disassociation between the different branches of the Board's inspectorate in the same area is naturally a hindrance in relations with local authorities. That much however can be done, even under the existing system, to promote unity of action and policy where officers in different branches make a deli-

berate point of combination, was shown indeed a few years ago in the case of what has become known as 'the Cheshire Pact,' when in the North Western Division, officers of the elementary, secondary, and technological branches systematically conferred on all projects of common interest, to the advantage in influence and value of the work done in each branch.

The elementary school inspectors might also profit from a closer and more regular association with work in the training colleges which prepare teachers for the schools which they inspect. The actual inspection of these colleges is as a matter of fact directly entrusted to certain of the divisional elementary school inspectors, and to some women inspectors in the case of women's institutions, with power to invite help of others from the different branches of the inspecting staff. Some of the elementary inspectors thus see a little of training college work, but their assistance is mainly confined to visiting practising schools and appraising the teaching of students under training, and they do not personally familiarize themselves with the ordinary life and routine of the college itself. Selected individuals amongst the inspecting staffs are also entrusted with the setting and marking of papers for the training college examinations, and with the preparation of a report upon the answer papers. Thus whereas a few senior inspectors can see the training college work in all its aspects, and a few others in certain aspects only either as assistants in inspection or as official examiners of written work, there is no regular association between the training college, the college authorities, or the students in training, and the elementary inspector as such; and an inspector may go indefinitely without seeing anything of this part of the teacher's career. The advantages to the inspector of such contact have been touched upon in the chapter on Training and Qualifications for inspection. But besides them the 'to and fro' criticism that would result from a constant comparison of the conditions in the school with the preparation in the college, and of the ideals of teaching and school management as expounded in the college and as practised in the schools, would be as useful to the college and to the school, as to the particular work of the inspector. If it is the temptation of the college to abide too austerely in ideals, to keep too sternly to the 'practical' is equally that of the school, a divorce that accounts for much failure in training institutions generally. In the abstract the inspector on a well considered system, might help substantially in tempering the idealism of the one as in elevating the practice of the other.

3. Specialist Inspection.

The employment of inspectors for special subjects also tends to upset the harmony of school work. As elsewhere mentioned, the Board has employed special inspectors for handicraft and drawing, and, more recently, for music and domestic subjects and to some extent for school gardening and specially rural subjects.

Until recently specialist inspectors were assigned large areas, and in practice arranged their programmes independently of the general inspectors, and visited the schools separately, except when programmes happened, or could easily be made, to fit.. A specialist in some one school subject visiting a school alone is placed in a difficult position. He is naturally unable to view the curriculum in perspective; and in proportion to his enthusiasm places an undue importance upon the subject which he inspects. When a subject is being introduced for the first time, or a neglected subject needs special encouragement and guidance, especially if it is a subject unfamiliar to the general inspector, the specialist has his raison d'être. In the promotion of more intelligent methods of teaching drawing and hand work, specialists in these subjects have done yeoman's service in the past, and have made invaluable—though not the sole—contributions to the changes in the conception of the place of drawing in education which regards it no longer as a special ornamental study, but as a means of expression available, with other means, for every subject, and which has expanded the matter and the manner of its exercise, from the conventional drawing of outline forms, to various kinds of mechanical and artistic portrayal of a variety of objects, 'natural' or conventional, and observed directly or remembered from previous observation. Similarly, there has been need for special guidance in the early days of school gardening and 'nature' study, and the impetus that has been given to practical and outdoor work in schools, the success which is attending it, and the growth of interest in it amongst inspectors generally must be partly credited to the specialist inspectors or supervisors in rural subjects whom the Board has sent itinerating the country for the purpose.

The present policy of the Board of Education, however, is rather to restrict the amount of specialist inspection as much as possible, as much, that is to say, as is consistent with the ensuring of sufficiently skilled advice and guidance in the sub-

ject. For in practice it is found that specialist inspection disturbs proportion in a school's work; the school is pulled in different directions at different times. An old headmaster cited a case in which, in the old 'inspection by examination' days, his school was first inspected by the sub-inspector, for whom all the class had been carefully drilled in the minimum required in the three R's; a fortnight later came the district inspector who heard such subjects as history and geography, and the pupils accordingly committed their reading books in these subjects to memory for the intervening fortnight, and after that they gave up literary pursuits, and took to drawing strokes and curves and unlifelike outline birds and fishes in anticipation of the drawing inspector who came three weeks afterwards. This of course is an extreme instance of the days of 'with notice' visits, but the later plan of specialist 'without notice' inspection also tended to vary the emphasis in schools according to the forcefulness of the comments passed by different inspectors on different sides of the work. A school thus sometimes acquired distinction through some special excellence unmerited by its state in other branches of its work, and it may be surmised that in such cases there was room for friction between the special and the general inspector. The latter had some check in his control over the school syllabuses, which came to him for approval. But even here room is left for debate as to whether, for example, the drawing of 'natural' objects should be taken in the 'nature study' periods, and not be considered part of the drawing lessons proper, or whether the clay modelling of castles or igloos should not be relegated to history or geography, thus increasing the time in the handwork periods for more specific forms of handicraft. Besides disproportion in school work specialist inspection may encourage disconnection. The special subject is not viewed in its bearings upon the school's other activities. The effects of this tendency are observable to-day in the drawing and handwork of elementary schools. In many towns, for instance, mainly for reasons of economy, handicraft is taught at special centres, to which pupils from eleven years of age may be sent for manual instruction. Instances are not rare in which the instructors in these centres are quite out of touch with the schools from which the pupils come—there are no mutual staff visits, and the sole connecting link is the pupils themselves. A system of 'specialist' inspection has in effect confirmed this tendency to isolation, which a more general contact between these types of schools both on the part of teachers and of inspec-

tors serves to break down. The result is too often seen in handwork that has no bearing upon the subjects in the pupils' curriculum, and in a certain jealousy in the school staff of the interest which the pupil takes in his work at the centre. The subjects compete instead of co-operating in the pupil's education. The pupils, again, reach the centre differently prepared, and needless unevenness in classes results. In one school the early training in paper folding, clay modelling or mechanical drawing and measuring, may prepare the pupil in general handiness and in habits of accurate drawing and measurement, for advanced work for which other pupils come unprepared. Mechanical drawing indeed has tended to lapse from the school curriculum, being left to be taken at the centre.

Towns exist in which the instructors of different manual training centres are out of touch not only with the elementary schools, but with one another. The courses of handwork are worked out in isolation, and it rests with the inspector to spread the good features of each among the lot.

Within recent years, however, changes in the organisation of the inspectorate have aimed at remedying this 'specialist' evil. The policy of assigning specialists large areas over which they range attending to their special subjects is being given up, and the general and the special inspector are approaching one another from their opposite poles. The specialist inspector is encouraged to acquaint himself with the other sides of the school's work, and in some cases is actually taking a share in the work of general inspection. There are stages in this movement from his side. He may watch the teaching of other than his special subject in the schools which he visits; he may visit ordinary elementary schools which include no special handicraft in their programme; he may go on to share with the district inspector the inspection of elementary schools, taking either the practical side of the work or the classroom subjects as he finds himself qualified; lastly his area for special inspection may be contracted and he may be given a special share of independent general inspection. The general inspector, on his part, is now encouraged to interest himself in special subjects, and is often appointed partly on the score of some special proficiency. He then becomes a general school inspector who may be invited to advise on his particular line of study within a prescribed area extending beyond his own district. The double movement from both ends is thus in the direction of a 'generalist specialist' inspecting system, according to which special

subjects of the school are judged in relation to the curriculum as a whole.

The present moment is one of transition. Specialist inspectors still itinerate on programmes practically independent of the general inspectors, without prearranging to meet. On the other hand, the general inspector may take an interest in the same special subject, and will enter on the specialist's ground. But if he visits a manual centre which the specialist also inspects, he comes chiefly as a visitor or for the purpose of acquainting himself with the work in its relation to the general work in the schools, and he leaves report writing to his colleague. The transition naturally takes time to reach its limit and it is possible that it will never be wise to dispense with specialist inspection altogether—in music, for example, and physical exercises.

Nor, perhaps, in other cases, will specialist and generalist ever be quite convertible—the pendulum might easily swing too far. A man with mental habits and preferences contracted and matured by long preoccupation with a narrow field of work may be unable to do justice to more general subjects in later life and be ill-fitted for the complexities of general administration. But this question awaits the answer of experience.

In India, where specialists are already being employed for certain subjects in some provinces (as science, handicraft, and drawing), the chief lessons from the English experience would seem to be that the specialist should keep in close contact with the general territorial inspector, working in association and often in company with him, and should consult with him in formulating his general recommendations; that he should also see something of the general work of the schools, and not confine his attention to his special subject, and in particular should investigate the connexions that do or might obtain between the special subject and others in the curriculum. An important function is that of advising the general inspector unfamiliar with the special subject, particularly in showing him how far, and in what points, he can promote the interests of the subject in question in schools not visited by the specialist himself.

4. 'Local' and Medical Inspection.

Another hindrance to the efficiency of Government inspection arises from the relations which obtain between the Board's and the local authority's inspectors. Even before the Educa-

tion Act of 1902 some of the largest boroughs in England employed school inspectors and educational officers of their own, and since the passage of that Act the number of local bodies so doing has increased. The extent to which local bodies undertake inspection of their own schools varies widely with circumstances. The smaller authorities usually cannot afford the cost of separate inspection, and here, and sometimes in big rural areas, the detailed inspection of the schools, and so the main outside influence upon their control and management, remains with the Board's officers. In large urban areas, on the other hand, namely, Manchester, Liverpool, and London, considerable 'local' staffs conduct regular inspections of their own, and the tendency of the Board's inspectorate is to occupy themselves with the broader problems of the locality or wider areas, and to leave detailed individual inspection to the 'local' officers. In some cases definite agreements have resulted in a distribution of work which avoids overlapping, but even here, and more especially where the 'spheres of influence' are indefinite or undivided, whatever the personal relations between the two inspectorates, official co-operation is irregular or rare between the two groups of educational officers. Local staffs vary much from place to place in the quality of their personnel, and differences in training and previous experience, differences between the local and the central standpoint, and differences natural between experts in so debatable a subject as education, continue to prevent unanimity between the two groups of officers. The local inspector is often chosen from amongst the local elementary school headmasters, and being besides in the employ of the local body, is necessarily affected by other than educational considerations in dealing with his schools. As a rule the local inspectorate is more immediately concerned with questions of appointments, promotions, supply, and administration generally than the Board's inspector, and the question arises whether the local authorities will end by assuming more educational as well as administrative control, or will come to rely more upon the assistance of the Board. Alternative eventualities might be the undertaking of all particular inspection as well as administration by the locality, leaving to the Board's inspector the general check of standards in the district or the collection of general information and experience for the country as a whole, or else a contraction of the 'local' authority's activity to matters of supply and organisation under the advice, and dependent upon the detailed inspection results, of the Board's officers. The present stage is one of somewhat uncom-

fortable and partial adjustment of functions, often to the detriment of the inspector's work and influence. And apart from matters of general policy, in the school too the inspecting officer is hampered by the fact of disagreement, or by the feeling that it may occur, or by apparent differences in advice which has been misunderstood and is, therefore, misconstrued by the teachers. Where there is dual inspection, it is common for teachers to complain of discrepancies in estimate of, or recommendations regarding, their work, and whether their complaints are grounded or not, the effect upon the one inspecting officer is to keep him from expressing ideas or from making suggestions that might appear to conflict with possible views of the other. Where an inspector does not feel free to criticize or comment, or where the schools are in fact pulled different ways, the work of inspection misses its mark.

Similar drawbacks obtain with the medical side of the local authority's work. The last decade has witnessed a general development of medical inspection in elementary schools throughout England, and local bodies—whether counties or boroughs—employ their own medical staffs for the purpose. A large country area, for instance, may have two or three medical officers for general medical examination of pupils, and an oculist and one or more dental surgeons as well. The medical school inspector conducts his inspection on a regular programme, a copy of which goes to the Board's educational school inspector. This is done to prevent visits clashing; but though it is no doubt inconvenient to conduct educational and medical inspections on the same day, the result is that the two officers seldom meet, and common topics are rarely considered from the double point of view. The medical inspector hitherto has been mainly busied with the examination of the physique of individual children, and secondarily, with a scrutiny of the premises from the standpoint of sanitation and hygiene. The educational inspector also considers the buildings, with less technical knowledge of medicine, but with more of an eye on the educational side of the question. He would consider a classroom, for instance, not merely in its general lighting and ventilation, but in regard to its lighting for a pupil who may have to sit in a far corner of it for periods in succession, and he would naturally attend to the form and size of the desks, and to the position and surfaces of the blackboard with regard to the light.

And there is much ground common to both inspectors that is not treated by them in common, but, if treated at

all, is approached from different angles. There is indeed a good deal to which an educational inspector might give more heed, if its importance were made clear to him by the medical man, and the medical inspector would stand to gain by realising the educational circumstances of the school. Questions of the arrangement of the time-table, of the place and duration of recesses, of the use made of the middle day interval, of the sequence of subjects, of the occupations of pupils in out-of-school hours, of their games and home study, of their physical exercises—in school and out, of their diet, clothing, and hours of sleep, are all very obvious common ground for medical and educational investigation; but the criticism may be ventured that these subjects are seldom considered in common, and some of them often escape attention from both parties. Where they come in for the medical man's attention, it is incidentally and partially, in reference to individual cases. The sufficiency of a pupil's clothing, for instance, and his general cleanliness will be noticed when the pupil is examined in detail; and if he is badly clothed, the matter will be officially remarked. But in point of fact the medical inspector does not see the pupils in their ordinary clothes at all, nor at their ordinary level of cleanliness, for they take good care to come neat and clean on the medical examination day; an educational inspector, visiting without notice can see these things more as they usually are and consider them in their relation to the life of the school as a whole. He could then usefully record his general or particular impressions for the medical inspector's assistance.

The doctor again may be led by a pupil's physical condition to inquire into his outside occupations, and may find him overworked in occupations out of school. He will note on this particular case for the parents' attention, but collaboration with the educational inspector might have shown the need of a more general inquiry into the relation of the outside employment to the work done in the school or of a temporary relaxation of school study in the special case.

In one instance the medical officer was struck by the inferiority in a large school of the girls' eyesight to that of the boys, and attributed it, on further investigation, to the kind of needlework done in school. This is a case where a knowledge of the school conditions assisted the medical man to arrive at his conclusions, but it is clear that many cases must arise in which the educational and the medical men could help one another in furthering what is, after all, their common object, by

suggesting lines of joint inquiry, supplying information useful to either officer, or suggesting points of importance which might otherwise be overlooked. In point of fact a good deal of the physical side of school work can easily escape the educational inspector's notice, such as the postures of pupils when seated for writing, or when standing for oral reading, or the relation of the hours of meals to the opening time of the school or the playing of games and other forms of vigorous exercise. The Swedish exercises again, are often—especially in rural schools—perfunctorily or wrongly done, and perhaps are saved from ill-effects by the very lack of conscious effort put into them.

The advantages of close co-operation between general and medical inspector are of course as clear for India as for any other country. A general inspector who can give up a day or two to watching his medical colleague at work, can not only add to the means within his knowledge by which he can assist in promoting attention to physical development in schools, but, by his more intimate and wider knowledge of school conditions generally, can join with the medical inspector in diagnosing and possibly in remedying or ameliorating the more general causes of common or of particular defects.

The Board of Education maintains a small medical department of its own, of eight medical officers and a nurse inspector; some of these and a few others chiefly from the general inspectorate inspect physical exercises in all grades of schools and colleges; but are too few to be responsible generally for the inspection throughout. Physical training courses for the general inspectors have been held in the past, but there seems to be need of more informed supervision of the physical training in schools which do not possess special instructors, and of more thorough co-operation for the purpose between the general and medical inspectorate. Besides the supervision of the local authorities' systems of medical school inspection with a view to grant, the inspection of schools for the mentally defective and for the blind and the deaf is also in the hands of the Board's medical inspectors, except for certain day schools seen by the district elementary school inspectors on their behalf. The general inspector does not however, report separately upon the schools which he visits, and his recommendations carry the less weight. Schools, whether for defective or normal pupils, are primarily educational institutions, and visits to several of them by a stranger produce the impression that their educational possibilities might be more completely realised if educa-

tional and medical experts could collaborate more regularly upon the many problems which their present condition seems to present.

Visits to institutions for the blind and the deaf here and there in the country leave the mind beset by a number of unanswered questions. Are the school principals usually sufficiently experienced in the special character of their subject, or do they come to it sufficiently fresh and uncommitted, to do its possibilities justice? Do they, as a body, continue their contact with educational progress in ordinary schools, so as to keep up to date in general methods and curricula? How frequent on the other hand and how far wise is the tendency to prefer a curriculum—perhaps somewhat old-fashioned—suited to the needs of normal pupils rather than to devise one adapted to the special case? Are there indeed, any generally accepted principles of instruction for this class of pupil at all, except for the employment of the special methods of teaching reading to the blind and speaking and understanding to the deaf? Do not the various institutions work too much in isolation from one another, and attempt too seldom to pool their experiences for the general benefit? Is it wise, as was done in at least one school, to make a deliberate principle of teaching—both in curricula and otherwise—the deaf child as though he were normal, instead of turning his abnormality to his advantage? Deaf pupils attempt to compensate for the sense they have lost by greater development of those they possess; is there enough advantage taken for instance of their strengthened power of observation? The curricula do not appear to have made a special feature of observational subjects, or the teaching generally of observational methods. Should not a child, deaf to the charm of music, be trained to be the more sensitive to the poetry of motion, the beauty of painting, of sculpture, and architecture? Is enough deliberately made of the other channels of possible development? Are the blind especially familiarized with music? Are their minds, in default of easy access to reading, stored with passages from good literature? Do they show, are they taught to find, especial enjoyment in poetry? Or, if not, are they read aloud to much more than other children—does this, and training in speech and thought apart from printed aid, form a special feature of their course.

Have the vocational possibilities, on the other hand, of the deaf and the blind been deeply and thoroughly considered? The practice seems to have been followed rather of preparing the pupils for any vocation for which there was an immediate

economic demand that they can be enabled to supply than of considering what they were best fitted for and of equipping them for that? Where deaf girls learn laundry work and dressmaking, could they not equally find interest in gardening, even perhaps in landscape gardening, with its special appeal to aesthetic and practical faculties? In regard to special systems of teaching the blind to read, would not the pupils benefit largely from an adoption of phonetic or simplified spelling in the Braille literature?

In teaching the deaf to speak and understand the spoken and written word, the so called 'oral' is superseding the 'manual' method. In one school visited the manual method of communication had succeeded in surviving among the pupils, who used it at every opportunity out of class; and every new pupil on admission quickly took it up. From the consequent lack of practice in 'oral' communication the pupils at the top of this school compared very unfavourably with those seen elsewhere. And the disadvantage can only be removed by drastic remedies.

And as in schools for blind children there is a radical difference between pupils blind through congenital disease and pupils blind from incidental causes, so in the 'mentally defective' schools are not the merely backward distinct from the mentally unsound? And are not the differences in both cases such as to justify a difference in treatment?

Questions such as those instanced above, it will be seen, are at least as much questions for the educational as for the medical expert, and in several cases can only be satisfactorily answered after considerable investigation in the light of the knowledge of the best educational views and practice. It is difficult therefore not to conclude that if the instruction of the blind, the deaf, and the defective, is to be organised for the best results, this can be done only by close and constant collaboration between medical and educational officers. The present system of inspection of these schools does not appear to secure this.

5. Inspectors and the outside world.

Having dealt with the means or the measures current for promoting unanimity within the elementary branch of the inspectorate and between it and other school inspecting agencies, it should not be out of place to conclude this chapter with a word on the relations that exist between the elementary inspectors and that wider public to whom after all they are

finally answerable for their stewardship and in whose hands the national system of education ultimately rests.

As far as their formal responsibilities go there is no injunction upon inspectors to exercise direct influence upon the people as a whole, nor does any machinery exist for the purpose. Moreover, as Government officers, inspectors are precluded from participating in political gatherings, or venting views of a distinctly political flavour. Nor in the pressure of multifarious duties is time easily available for entering upon public duties other than those of the inspector as such. But the opinion holds amongst some inspectors that the influencing or educating of popular opinion, and the enlightening of the public on educational matters, is something more than a work of supererogation on their part—is a real, if not an ostensible, duty. In common with not a few headmasters and others, they look out for opportunities of familiarising English democracy with the ideals and position of its schools and with its own responsibilities towards them. The headmaster, for instance, can—and sometimes does—make special efforts, by setting aside certain hours for the purpose, or by arranging entertainments or meetings, to bring the parent to the school, or, by reports upon his children's conduct or progress, to bring the school to the parent; and in large town schools in particular a head teacher can often acquire influence in his neighbourhood as a friend and adviser of parents upon a child's prospects and career, and is consulted by employers in search of promising workers. He becomes in effect an informal labour bureau. There are inspectors, in their turn, who endeavour to reach a still wider public in the working (and voting or trade unionist) proletariate, and to assist in the task of acquainting them with their responsibilities and fitting them—in whatever measure—for their fulfilment. It is frequent to hear criticisms of the schools from the man in the street, who however knows little of their difficulties, and forgets, or is unaware, that in the last resort he is their patron, and the school is his own. Nor is the employer so closely in touch with the school as he should be—but teachers, with the encouragement of inspectors can do a good deal by discovering the requirements of employers, and their opinion of the main defects of youths entering their employment, or by keeping records of ex-pupils' careers with employers' comments upon their progress, both to interest the employing class in the schools and to make the instruction more truly (not more narrowly) vocational. The inspectors as a

body are not unalive to these needs. There is indeed, one problem for the timely and harmonious solution of which the co-operation of employers would seem to be indispensable. The economic structure of society is such that the pupil is constantly being imbued in his school life with interests which his later career gives him no means of satisfying. The work of the cotton operative, of the mechanical engineer, of the worker in a large timber-mill, the hundred and one occupations which involve for him at a stretch the monotonous iteration of a single set of muscular movements, mean that for purposes of further utility the greater—and certainly the higher—part of the individual workman's formal education has been wasted, and that, for the satisfaction of his personal interests acquired at school, he must depend upon his leisure hours. The nation's —and indeed, the world's—schools, are involved in a crucial dilemma. If they prepare only for probable vocation (according to the economic demands), then they deliberately ignore the general development of the individual. If, on the other hand, they try to make the best of each pupil (according to the individual's possibilities), then they are mis-fitting a large proportion for their main daily work in life. The educational inspector, aware of the problem, promotes the ideal of all round development, with a secondary and later and not too narrow adaptation to vocational requirements; but the practical solution can only in the end be compassed by the united efforts of school and employer and employed, and indeed by a general reconstruction of the whole social and economic structure of the nation.

When undertaking the rôle of a missionary of public education in the widest sense, the inspector is contributing his iota to the future solution of large problems of this nature.

6. Distribution of inspecting work in India.

From what has been said in this and preceding chapters, it will be gathered that to the district or divisional inspector, personal association with educational authorities of every kind, and sometimes indirectly with a wider public, is at least as important as the regular inspection of schools. His work is largely explanatory, expository, even missionary, though he has carefully to balance the merits of a policy of advancing his own views against one of deferring to those of authorities less familiar with educational principles. Much of the detailed inspection of schools is either left to the inspector of the local body where employed, or to the assistant inspectors of the Board

in the district, and the inspector has thus time to give also to undertaking and organising special inquiries and report of the kind exemplified in the chapter on this subject.

But in India for reasons given elsewhere and more especially because in a large class of schools promotions and appointments rest in his hands, the inspector's time is more fully occupied both with office work and with detailed school inspection. Some at any rate of the causes of this are not however unalterable, and if a hint from the English practice is worth considering, an arrangement whereby in a division a senior officer should hold general charge and be also specially responsible for the inspection in one district of his division, while a junior colleague could undertake the routine of inspection in the rest of it, might set an experienced officer free for much important work that now is either left undone or attempted imperfectly as a by-task. Besides giving more time and thought to questions of general policy, and to the general consideration and organisation of education throughout his division, he would be able to take up special investigations, above all into the many problems that beset the difficult subject of the development of primary education in different areas. At present primary education often receives from the inspector, busied in the daily inspection of secondary schools, little more than a cursory glance; and its welfare is largely committed to the hands of subordinate inspecting officers who are precluded from considering its requirements in the large, and are themselves entangled in merely inspection routine.

The distribution of duties between the two officers might be such as on the one hand to put the junior inspector through a valuable apprenticeship for the higher duties of his colleague, and on the other to enable the senior inspector to see something of all branches of education in every district in the division as a whole.

CHAPTER V.

Reports and Inquiries.

It is convenient to distinguish four classes of report or inquiry work with which the inspectorate is immediately concerned.

(1) Ordinary reports on individual schools;

(2) Reports upon special subjects, undertaken locally;

(3) Divisional reports; and

(4) Pamphlets and Suggestions published by the Board of Education for general circulation.

1. Ordinary Reports on Individual Schools.

In the days of annual examinations it was the practice to accompany the despatch of the examination schedules to headquarters with a formal report upon the general progress and efficiency of the school. Such reports varied in length and detail according to the idiosyncracies of the inspector from a concise estimate that might be given in a single sentence to a more or less elaborate appreciation of the school's work in different branches and subjects. But since the gradual substitution in the last decade of the nineteenth century of inspection for examination and more lately of visits without notice for the regular annual visitations, and since the annual award of grant is no longer dependent upon yearly estimates or statistics furnished by the inspector, no administrative necessity for succeeding a visit with a report remains; and except for a formal triennial report on each school required by the Treasury, in practice inspectors report as they think fit. Report writing for its own sake is however discouraged. A school report does not find its way to the school logbook until it has been submitted to the Board of Education, where it is itself 'inspected' by one of the Board's examiners, when it returns to the local authority—often accompanied by a comment, calling attention to some point of practical moment—and is copied verbatim in the school's logbook. This machinery is not called into play unnecessarily.

Usually, and in normal times, a district inspector (and the divisional inspector for the part of the division allocated as his district), aims at reporting upon each school in his area

once in every two or three years. And though examination of school logbooks shows cases not infrequent in which a school has had no report from the Board's inspector for a period as long as five or six years, in ordinary circumstances he would not deem it advisable to let too long a time elapse without some notice of the state of the school.

Inspectors also keep more or less clearly in mind a distinction between detailed school inspections and incidental visits; and a report that follows the former will not only embody or summarise the judgments of the various inspecting officers assisting at that particular inspection, but will take into consideration the impressions formed (though officially unrecorded) at incidental visits since the date of the last report.

A third point of interest is the comparative brevity of most of the reports (even after a full inspection), or rather the deliberate avoidance of any attempt to cover each of a recognised number of topics pertaining to a comprehensive estimate of the worth of the school in all its main branches. It is not that such comprehensive estimates are never attempted, it is rather that they are not regarded as a necessary or normal part of an inspecting officer's routine of work, though a thorough inspection may of course be called for on particular occasions. Thus the ordinary reports made by a district inspector or his assistant tend to vary between two characteristic types—the report which conveys at more or less length a summary impression of the progress of the school as a whole, particularising, where it is considered worth while, on some special feature in the school's life (a class or a subject, the premises, organisation, etc.,) and a report confined to a specific point for a specific purpose, *e.g.*, some specific improvement or other made since the last inspection, some building necessity that has been disregarded, some particular innovation in the curriculum, and so on.

But it is not often that one comes across a report that contains more than a few definite suggestions for change in teaching practice. The string of points for attention is conspicuously absent; a single general reform, or one or two particular devices or teaching methods, may be recommended, but as often as not construction is left to be implied through criticism, and adverse criticism itself has even to be read between the lines. As a body the English inspectors are cautious of condemnation, and, possibly for the reason that positive suggestion may presuppose some condemnation of

existing practice, their written reports are rather sparing of advice. There are however good reasons for this attitude. In the first place, the board of managers, or the local authority where it has no inspecting staff of its own, relies upon the written reports of the Board's inspector for their own judgment of the head teacher and the staff, and the responsibility rests with the inspector of leaving no unfavourable impression unless it is indubitably justified and in any case of never going further than the situation warrants. The gentlemen of the local borough or council are seldom educational experts, and are not qualified to evaluate the amount of praise or condemnation that some particular teaching suggestion implies; there is a tendency to regard a positive suggestion as covering an actual dereliction in duty. Hence an inspector will naturally resort to understatement or simple omission, and will leave much spoken advice unrecorded. Inspectors have to face this difficulty when combining in the same report the two objects of conveying to the local authority a faithful account of the school's condition and of including hints for the guidance of the staff. Some omit the latter altogether, some reduce it to a carefully expressed minimum; and a minority deal with these two functions separately, giving the general estimate for the local authority's notice first, and then going into some detailed criticism and advice for the benefit of the teachers. Local circumstances further affect the practice. Where the local authority has inspectors of its own, as in several counties and large county boroughs, particular school reporting may be—and often is—left largely to the local authority's officers, and the Board's inspectors may confine themselves to reporting in special cases. In a district on the other hand which consists chiefly of small boroughs in charge of elementary education but without educational inspectors of their own, the Board's inspector may make a point of reporting to the borough authority on each school once in every two or three years, but in a mainly urban district, where several schools are close together and within easy reach, he may prefer to trust to personal contact with the teachers, whether in the school or at more formal meetings, for initiating changes or reforms. In an extensive rural area, on the other hand, especially in the absence of any regular 'local' inspection, the tendency is to be more detailed and explicit in advice. There are areas—especially rural agricultural areas in the South and West—in which the teachers are remote from current educational movement and trust to the inspector to keep them up to

date; in others the community is more independent and self-reliant.

These differences in practice are also partly due to differences in individual aptitudes or temperament—some inspectors for example are at home in conferences with teachers; others are more adept at the written word. This possibly explains contradictory opinions encountered, one that it is imprudent to commit your advice to writing, because in that case it is liable to misinterpretation, the other that the only way to avoid misconstruction is to put down everything in black and white. It is worth noting that this difference of view as to the amount of detailed suggestion a report should contain is not confined to inspectors, for important headmasters are equally at variance. One headmaster of a large city school would practically abolish inspectors' reports altogether as inducing in the inspector a wrong attitude towards his work; his metier is to be the friend and minister of the world of schools, not the impersonal judge of the community of teachers; this business of reporting to an outside authority by concentrating his mind on the process of judging keeps him from the more useful missionary side of his duties. Another headmaster would prefer a longer, more detailed, more suggestive type of report; the inspector's work would greatly increase in value if he gave more time to suggestions and less to a general appraisement.

Since, however, the abandonment of the annual examination, the policy of the Board of Education has set steadily in the direction of promoting in the head teachers responsibility for the success and conduct of their own schools, and this policy also makes the individual inspector reluctant to advise too much.

In any case an experienced inspector is careful to keep within his compass. No one can know more intimately the special difficulties and circumstances that beset his school than the head teacher, and to expect an inspector, who sees it once or at most twice in the year, to make suggestions in detail applicable to his school in particular is to tempt him beyond his scope; on the other hand, as a trained observer of the problems and practices that obtain in a variety of schools, he would be equally wanting in capacity if he did not amass ideas and principles and expedients likely to be applicable in different sets of circumstances. How they should be modified in practice or whether they should be applied at all is for the head

teacher's further consideration; and, whatever his decision, he can fairly be expected to know, and to be able to state his reasons.

These, then, are some of the considerations that govern the extent and character of report writing of English elementary school inspectors. It is perhaps worth while adding that as a rule the worst schools get the most detailed notice. The reason for this is obvious. An adverse reporter must be quite sure of his ground, and at the same time in fairness to the school he must be precise. His report must therefore be exact and unmistakable on the particular defects that call for remedy but must contain enough to substantiate his points. Further, the report will lose much of its value unless it proceeds to suggest the most suitable remedies. In the case of inefficient schools, indeed, the inspector usually attempts to rule out the personal equation in judgment by calling in the assistance of other inspecting officers and the evidence which the report contains will be that submitted by them all.

On the other hand there are instances of long and carefully written reports in appreciation of specially good schools, where the inspector may think that an appreciation will encourage the staff or management, or that the merits of the school are of such a peculiar character as to be worth recording, and that their record may have some influence on the educational world outside. There are inspectors, too, who prefer to concentrate attention upon the best schools in their area, believing that more good is done by encouraging and guiding the enthusiast than by attempting to rouse the sluggard. In an urban area, at any rate, where schools are near one another, the claim is made that the proximity of a specially excellent school has a good effect upon others.

2. Reports upon special subjects, undertaken locally.

As inspecting officers are no longer expected to submit periodical reports upon each school in their areas, of late years the practice has been growing of undertaking inquiries into special subjects. Since the Act of 1902 entrusted public education to local borough and county councils, these bodies have in several cases appointed school inspectors or educational officers of their own. Some of the big borough school boards (*e.g.*, at Manchester and in London) had already had such inspecting staffs for several years, and the practice has been extending gradually in the present century. Some changes

which resulted from the measure of 1902 in the character and function of the Board's inspectorate have been noticed elsewhere. As the immediate supervision and provision of schools of every grade has fallen to the local body, it has been possible for the Board of Education to undertake the work of organising sources of educational information and disseminating in convenient fashion results, criticisms and suggestions derived from a continuous recorded observation of each kind of school over a wide area. (Report of Board of Education 1904-05.) In 1906, again, the inspector was formally relieved of the necessity of paying a visit to each school every year, a measure expected to enable him to see more carefully the work of certain selected schools, or the teaching of particular subjects, or to consider the methods of dealing with particular problems.

Consequently in the last ten years a revolution—beginning with a special inquiry into certain defects in a group of schools in the North-West Division, undertaken by a number of inspectors in that area—has been gradually taking place from a system in which the inspector was mainly occupied in investigating many subjects in each school to one in which he investigates a particular subject in many. The revolution is not and may never be complete; in areas where the local authority has no inspecting staff of its own the business of detailed inspection of individual schools still falls to the Board's inspector, with less time in consequence for separate inquiries. But the practice varies from that obtaining in a big town area like London (whose County Council has a staff of forty or more inspectors—some of them specialists), where the work of the Board's inspector is mainly special in character, to the extensive rural district (as, *e.g.*, East Sussex) or the district composed of small boroughs (*e.g.*, that comprising Blackburn, Preston and some ten manufacturing towns in Lancashire), where the local authorities, though one or two have an educational director, leave the detailed inspection almost entirely to the Board. But even in such cases the Board's officer seldom confines his energies to simple separate school inspection, and will, from time to time, as occasion warrants, undertake inquiries of a special kind. For a state of things never occurs in which the welfare of education can be best promoted by an annual itinerary of single inspection without stopping to make special observations by the way. These inquiries are never abstract or academic; they are noticeably practical and concrete in character. They are nearly always undertaken to meet some present need, to remedy

an actual defect, or to anticipate a menace, and they serve firstly to elucidate the facts, and then to propose either a remedy or the lines along which a remedy may best be sought. In this way a mass of useful guidance is put at the service of local bodies, of school managers or principals, and of the inspecting staff themselves. Examples of reports on such inquiries are the following:—

(1) On infant schools in Manchester.

(2) On the organisation of technical, continuation and evening schools in a large city-borough.

(3) On needlework and domestic economy in a group of selected schools.

(4) On organised games in elementary schools.

(5) On an experiment in teaching English and history in a certain school.

(6) On accommodation in the schools of a particular area.

(7) On school gardening in Cheshire.

(8) On handwork in London elementary schools.

(9) On internal examinations in London elementary Schools.

(10) On classification and promotion in a certain local group of elementary schools.

(11) On classes held in playgrounds and open spaces in London during the summer of 1913.

(12) Upon school journeys under the L. C. C.

(13) On some educational experiments carried out in public elementary schools in Shoreditch and Stepney.

(14) On London central schools (1914).

(15) On the teaching of science to boys in certain public elementary schools in London.

(16) On the use made of the workroom of a London County Council School's Boys' Department.

(17) On the supply of books, stationery, and apparatus in the public elementary Schools of an inspectorial division.

(18) On the teaching of singing in London elementary Schools.

(19) On school gardens in London.

(20) On schools for very poor children in London.

The above list of some inquiries made within the last two or three years in two divisions in England will give an idea of the nature and scope of the work undertaken.

These investigations emanate as a rule either from district or divisional inspectors, being undertaken as the occasion (*i.e.*, the needs of locality or their general utility) seems to demand. The work is most carefully done. In a typical case the inspector initiating the inquiry seeks the help of a number of colleagues or assistants, to whom, after conference and a settlement of the particular lines the inquiry can most usefully take, different branches of the work are distributed. Ordinary visiting may be largely abandoned for the time being, and the inquiry may extend into several weeks or even months. The investigating officers keep in close touch, and can compare notes as they go along. As matters of fresh importance or new points of view emerge, a more formal re-discussion may lead to a revision of the original intention or a change of programme. A single officer is made responsible for drafting the report, and receives the various contributions of his colleagues after they have run the gauntlet of criticism from the rest—at meetings convened for the purpose—or from the officer in general charge.

The reports which result from these inquiries are often of considerable value. Though undertaken commonly in local areas, they usually deal with matters of general interest in public education, and when they find their way to local authorities, school managers, and head teachers, they serve to promote and to co-ordinate progress in all areas. They help to give direction and unity to movements that are constantly beginning here and there in England but threaten in the absence of recognised principle or a clear lead to stray into unprofitable channels.

Apart from the general utility of the published reports, to an inspector, accustomed to a round of inspection of particular schools, the special inquiry is a relief and a corrective. His mind is revived from the variety imparted to his work, and from contact with his colleagues. And matters that might otherwise escape his attention, or share it equally with others, are now separately probed and studied; important aspects of school life are revealed that might otherwise elude the light. The inspector views his subject from new standpoints, and may thus add as it were another item to his ordinary inspecting repertoire.

3. Divisional Reports.

Since the Education Act of 1902 the submission by inspectors of regular periodical reports upon public education in the areas under their jurisdiction has not been expected; and even before that date, the practice of annual reporting upon every administrative area has never obtained. The eighty or ninety districts were arranged into groups for the purpose of reporting, and reports from these groups were prepared in successive years, the whole country being thus covered in three or four years. In the year 1880-81, for example, the general report on Education of the Education Department contains separate reports from twenty-two districts. Later on when the districts were arranged in larger units called Divisions, these were reported on as a whole, and five such reports (covering that is, a half of the country) are contained in the Board of Education's report for the year 1900-01.

After this date however the submission of 'area' reports of this kind as a matter of routine ceased, but the principle has been substituted of obtaining reports upon the larger administrative areas at sufficient intervals to secure a continuous record of educational progress throughout the country. In point of fact the first ten years after the Act of 1902 witnessed no general 'area' reporting of any kind, but in 1912-13 reports were undertaken for two Divisions typical of characteristically different conditions in England, the North-West, and the South-West Divisions. Owing to the death of the officer in charge of the latter, the report on the North-West Division only was completed and is embodied in the Board's annual report for 1913-14.

This change in practice has corresponded with changes in the character of the reports themselves. In the era of 'denominational' inspections before 1870 areas as such were not surveyed in reports at all; but with the grouping of schools of all denominations under single inspection 'area' reporting became practicable. But the reports in the 'examination' era in their matter and manner indicate a narrower conception of the inspecting responsibilities than prevails to-day.

The reports of that era were concerned largely with the questions of the supply of educational machinery, and of school attendance, and with separate estimates of pupils' progress in each school subject. The former was natural in the early days of 'universal' education, and the latter reflected the current influences of the examination and payment for results system.

The reports commented more upon attainments than ability, upon results than upon procedure; excursions into the realm of method in teaching or into a general discussion of the state of the instruction in the schools as a whole were occasional and incidental only. Broad questions were not often asked or answered; suggestions for improvements in teaching were usually confined to the recommendation of small devices or at most to partial and inadequate remedies. In those days the principles of the teaching of the various subjects were not agreed upon nor understood, and each inspector promulgated such happy thoughts on the subject as came into his head, sometimes practical and to the point, but which often, if analysed, would be found to be based upon assumptions opposite to those which underlay the recommendations of a brother inspector elsewhere. The subjects of instruction again were dealt with as separate items in the school's educational repertory; the school both in pupils and in subjects was viewed from an atomic standpoint; there was little realisation of the curriculum or of the class, or of the school, as an organic whole.

And the style in which reports were written, if not actually pompous, was at any rate more 'aloof,' more 'official,' less natural and humane, than has become the fashion to-day; this was in keeping with the rather detached and superior attitude adopted by the earlier inspectors towards the schools.

After the appointment of Chief or Divisional inspectors, where the large divisional areas became units for report writing, the district inspectors submitted reports to their Chief inspectors, who concocted a summary of the lot rather than a comprehensive survey of his whole area. In 1890-91, for example, the divisional reports are little else than a succession of extracts from the remarks of district officers and the interest that might have been imparted by an attempt at a general view of the situation in the whole area is sought for instead by a sprinkling of purple patches, selected from district reports, upon details. The subjects of the curriculum came in as before for a good deal of attention, but reflections upon methods of instruction are more frequent, and more informed and suggestive. With the measures adopted to abandon individual examinations of pupils, and the payment of grants against particular subjects, the 'area' reports reflect the broader and deeper view that was now being taken of education, but the method of accumulating extracts still persists.

In the most recent report (referred to above) that of the North-West Division published in 1914, this plan has been

definitely given up. A single officer was charged with the preparation of the report, and given a free hand to review the progress and condition of public education in his area in the way he thought best. At the same time interest is added to the review by the very absence of reports in the preceding decade. Instead of a review, under more or less set headings, of smaller or greater occurrences within a short and recent period, we have a freely written historical document of permanent interest, comprising a running contrast in conditions between the beginning and the end of the decade under review with some exposition of the main movements and problems with which it was concerned. Such topics include, for example, the effect of staffing schools with purely local teachers (a kind of 'inbreeding' in education), a comparison between the trained teachers of to-day and of ten years ago, various results of the change from examination to inspection, and of the liberty allowed head teachers and local authorities in choice of curricula, the development of practical activities in schools, and of the school as a social centre and a labour employment agency, and the revolution that is taking place in the conception of the scope and variety of the school's work. At the same time room is found for the ordinary items of school reports in general—accommodation, supply, staffing, instruction, and so on.

A long report written at occasional intervals can deal at some length and to some purpose with questions upon which the briefer annual report can scarcely touch. The tendency of short dated reports is, for lack of new movements sufficiently developed or realised to record, to keep to a similar series of topics, and to give to each an even, rather than their due, emphasis. If a report is to be interesting, and not a perfunctory touching on heterogeneous events, it must be able to detect important movements clearly and to follow them some little way in their development, while neglecting the purely trivial. Reports at too frequent intervals lack perspective, and their very frequency makes them too familiar to attract notice.

It is natural in view of the English practice to put the question whether the periodical 'area' reports on education are not too frequent in India; what advantage, specifically, is obtained commensurate with the time and trouble taken by inspecting officers in compiling six or seven descriptions (in reports on each district and on the division as a whole) of the state of education in an Indian division every year? A report

if it is to be of use should affect future action, and it may be queried whether, for purposes of practical politics, a review, undertaken at sufficient intervals to admit of due perspective largely of changes or new movements sufficiently developed to facilitate or repay an account of them, is not more valuable as a guide to action than a yearly compilation mainly taken up with comparative details arranged under a series of prescribed subject matter. Or if annual reports continue to be required, would not a summary of statictics and data useful for the occasional larger survey suffice for the purpose?

Is a yearly reconsideration of controlling agencies, the work of philanthropic bodies, the state of secondary and of primary education, the supply of teachers, the cost of education, the condition of buildings, and so on, worth the while? Or possibly the selection of one of these topics for special treatment each year, or the distribution of particular topics amongst different divisions in a province, would be an improvement on the existing system, and would tally with a plan by which the divisional inspector could transfer part of the time now taken up with the ordinary routine of inspection to the undertaking of special investigations into one or more of the many problems that beset educational progress in India.

4. Pamphlets and Suggestions published by the Board of Education.

Characteristic of the change that has come over the spirit of public education in the last quarter of a century is the change in the character of the printed matter that issues from the Government press. In the old days much of this matter was in the nature of directions and instructions, and just as the schools and the teachers were drilled and regularised as to subjects, standards, and methods of teaching, so the inspectors' programmes and procedure were kept under pretty tight control. This was done by means of frequent instructions issued from headquarters, detailing to inspectors what to do and what to avoid doing, and any change in the code or the school curriculum was accompanied by directions to inspectors explaining the intentions of the measure and how exactly these intentions were to be fulfilled. The present century has witnessed an almost complete abandonment of this policy of dogma and prescription. The literary output of the Board of Education has very greatly increased, but the place once taken by instructions to inspectors has now been taken by suggestions for the consideration of teachers and others interested in public

education, or by pamphlets published from time to time upon various topics of educational interest. The Board now addresses the teacher and the educational—or even the general—public, not its own agents only, and that in terms of suggestion or recommendation, not of authority or behoof. The school is public property, no longer a Government reserve.

The pamphlets and circulars prepared by the Board of Education often bear a direct relation to the special investigations undertaken locally by inspectors. It is in effect the business of the inspector to discover and elucidate the practical problems of education in his area, as they arise; where such problems are purely local in their reference or solution, to submit a report upon them to the Board of Education would be superfluous; but where a subject is—or seems likely to be—of general importance, it is as much a duty of an inspector who has dealt with it to put any useful results of his inquiries at the disposal of the public at large as it is of a medical investigator to publish the results of research. Reports upon local inquiries are therefore often submitted to the Board of Education, and frequently inaugurate a more general investigation, or collection of experience and opinion, the conclusions of which emerge in due course in the form of a pamphlet on the subject circulated from Whitehall. The Board of Education has in fact in recent years made the publication throughout the country of the best practice, experience, or opinion, upon practical school concerns one of its normal functions, and, through its office of Special Reports and Inquiries, initiates and prepares pamphlets on educational topics often dealing with matters not within the immediate scope of inspectors working in England, as for example on School Doctors in Germany, on the Problem of Rural Schools and Teachers in North America, on Farm and Agricultural Schools and Colleges in France, Germany, and Belgium, and several others.

Reports or pamphlets dealing with home education more especially, prepared by the Board either in its office of Special Inquiries or otherwise, include, in the case of elementary schools, the teaching of each subject of the curriculum, the methods of instruction applicable to pupils at each stage, organisation and staffing, and the arrangement of curricula, syllabuses and time-tables in schools, physical training, health and discipline, manual instruction, infant care and management, lessons in temperance, and the teaching of domestic subjects; in the case of secondary schools, examina-

tions, the curricula of secondary schools and of ruralised secondary schools in particular, physical training, the teaching of various subjects, and the 'practical' work. Some of these matters are dealt with in the form of reports of the current practice or opinion, others of recommendations of principles for general guidance. They are always however so worded as to leave entire local freedom of action, and are intended to place in a convenient comprehensive form the best that is yet known on the subject for the benefit of the local authority or the teacher.

In the preparation of these publications the inspectors naturally have an important share. As a rule the actual compiling and drafting falls to them, but care is taken to cull experience and useful advice from every source available. Perhaps a point to emphasise is that the memoranda derive little from book matter or from academic treatises, most from living current or previous practice. The sources of information are in the main the working experience of people actually engaged on the very problems concerned, in schools or colleges or cognate institutions; and the recommendations which result are usually such as have already stood the test of experiment. A point which one is apt to overlook is that in England—as indeed elsewhere—we stand at the beginning of a public system of education, and—it might be added—still not far from the beginning of the study of the science and art of teaching and of school work generally. Since the nineties amongst professed educationalists, and since the Act of 1902, amongst a wider interested public, developments in educational principle, practice, and administration, have been more rapid than ever before. Movement tends to be various and sporadic, and the Board has made it its object both to set and to check the pace, and to guide the current along safe channels. New practice is tried and discarded, and principles evolve as practice goes on. The Board's memoranda should form an interesting record of the best practice at every important stage, and of the gradual evolution of principles as they emerge. It is thus a merit and a sign of life that the suggestions issued from headquarters in one year may be modified or in part even contradicted by those which follow five or six years later.

The well-known 'suggestions for the consideration of teachers' are a case in point. They were first issued ten years ago, containing chapters on most subjects in the elementary curriculum and on the organisation of the elementary school.

Their preparation involved careful inquiry on all sides extending into years. It was necessary to begin with to discover the particular individuals—not necessarily inspectors, often practising teachers—most interested or informed or experienced in each subject concerned. When enough representatives of the different standpoints in regard to the subject had been discovered, a meeting was convened at headquarters to settle the most profitable lines for further inquiry. Local sub-committees were then chosen to carry this programme of inquiry into the country, and to elicit the views and probe the experience of local headmasters and others interested. The local sub-committees then reported back to headquarters, and the body of material thus collected was sifted and co-ordinated by the inspector in charge of the subject. His draft was then submitted for opinions to any bodies whose views were likely to be of value (*e.g.*, to the authorities of agricultural colleges and societies, and of training colleges, in the case of rural subjects) and after the return of these reports the suggestions in the various topics were again revised and put into form for final publication.

It will easily be seen that the effects of this procedure are not confined only to the direct influence of the 'Suggestions' as finally issued. The process of preparation of the pamphlet has also involved a process of preparation of the educational public. The actual procedure is one of awakening general interest and inquiry—there is general discussion, conference, and stir, and progress has been stimulated and public opinion has already been partially affected before the actual circulation of printed matter. The inspectors themselves apart from any general instructions and advice have in the process of investigation learnt the scope and possibilities and the present position of the subject in question, and are thus already equipped for promoting the next advance. The circulation of the 'Suggestions' supplements the process of inquiry by reducing the subject to perspective and as far as possible to principle for general guidance, and in universalising what is already best in local or occasional practice. If it is the peculiar function of a district inspector to glean from school to school improved practices and promising ideas and to spread them throughout his area—adapting his counsel to the circumstances of the case—so the Board has assumed the rôle of spreading through its printed circulars principles gathered locally, but applicable in some shape or form throughout the country.

It is significant of the Government's view of its duties that, in the first place, the various syllabuses and treatises in teaching are deliberately given a tentative character, and, in the second, that they are subject to intermittent revision. Educational procedure is fixed neither in place nor time. It falls to the local authority and the school principal to adopt the Board's recommendations to the place, or even after examination to replace them with better; the presentation of fresh changes or developments with the course of time is the concern of the Board. Thus the 'Suggestions,' first issued in 1905, were reprinted with revisions of separate chapters in 1912 and again in 1914, since when further chapters have already appeared separately in revised form.

CHAPTER VI.

The Inspection of Secondary Schools.

Although for reasons elsewhere given I was unable to be present at secondary inspection of the detailed kind treated in this chapter, yet the procedure of inspection as described by inspectors offers a sufficiently interesting contrast to that followed in elementary schools to justify on its own merits some exposition and tentative discussion, which may possibly be of service to those engaged in the inspection of high schools in India.

The secondary school is distinguished from the elementary by the fact that it admits pupils usually at a later age and carries on their schooling to eighteen or nineteen. Its curriculum is consequently of a different type, and with courses of study more advanced than in elementary schools, the appraising of the work in the different subjects is beyond the scope of a single inspecting officer. The detailed inspection of a secondary school thus becomes the business of a number of special officers, who visit the school at the same time. The officers available for the work are naturally fewer than for elementary education, and the programme of inspection dates for the school inspected by the Board have in consequence to be carefully arranged in advance with due allowance for the convenience of each officer concerned.

The 'full' inspection—as this prearranged visit is termed—is the characteristic feature of secondary inspection in England. It is conducted at intervals of four or five years, and is intended as a periodical revision of the whole activities of the individual school—a re-examination of its condition, a revaluation of its worth, and a reconsideration of the most profitable lines for its future development.

The group of inspectors who conduct this inspection includes the inspector for the district who is in charge of the report writing, and some of them are specialists in particular lines called in for the purpose, who penetrate the school for a period of from two to five days, to emerge at the end with a mass of information on which to base a complete estimate of the school's condition in all its branches. In selecting the inspecting officers for this group inspection, the Chief Inspector for secondary schools can draw not only from the whole of the English secondary school inspectorate, but also upon the

other inspection branches, and from a number of specialists in particular subjects like music or handicraft. It is a practice in assigning secondary district inspectors their areas, so far as other circumstances permit to place men with complementary qualifications in adjoining areas, a science man within reach of a classical or modern language man, and so on. In this way it seldom becomes necessary to make very distant calls for service, except say in the case of a specialist in botany or some more recondite subject which happens to figure in the school's curriculum. At the beginning of the inspection the work is distributed amongst the different inspecting officers, and as a rule the investigation of the more general organisation of the school falls to the district inspector concerned.

Where a group of half-a-dozen officers thus settle upon a school of, say, three or four hundred pupils, a difficulty is so to arrange the programme as to avoid upsetting the ordinary time-table or wasting an inspecting officer's time. The only way, indeed, in which each of a number of separate officers with different special subjects or lines of inquiry can avoid intermittent vacant intervals is frankly to abandon adherence to the ordinary time-table altogether by allowing the inspector to take the class in his particular subject, irrespective of the lessons assigned for that period on the time-table. With a little pre-arrangement it should then usually be possible for each man to take successive classes (or sample class sections) in his subject without crossing the programme of a colleague. There are however objections to a plan of this kind. The formal inspection is in any case an ordeal to the ordinary teacher, which may indeed be somewhat softened the less he is disturbed in his ordinary class work. Where however his class is liable to be tested in any subject at any moment, the ordeal increases in severity, and the inspector finds neither class nor teacher at their moment of average capacity. Unless indeed the inspector happens upon a subject on the time-table for the day, and for which the teacher could reasonably be expected to have prepared, it is unfair to test the teacher's handling of a lesson at all, for it is impossible to make due allowance for deficiencies caused by nervousness or unpreparedness or peculiarities of temperament which may mar a teacher's 'inspection value' without affecting his worth as a teacher. The attainments of a class however unless the teaching, in its nearest approach to the ordinary, is seen also, are an insecure indication of the worth either of the class on the one hand, or of the teacher on

the other. A good class may have been spoilt by a bad teacher, or good teaching handicapped by a weak—or specially circumstanced—class.

If then the inspector is to see the teacher and the class in their nearest approach to the normal, he can do this best by adhering to the usual time-table of the day. But in this case except when the period for his subject in any class comes along, he remains unoccupied and his time is wasted; or he may eke out the time, with insufficient profit to compensate, by watching what is going on elsewhere. The criticism is, indeed, levelled against this 'full' inspection that except for the reporting inspector, who investigates the organisation and general arrangement of the school, time is generally wasted in this way; and it is difficult to see how the dilemma can be evaded.

The actual classroom procedure in inspection differs somewhat from that of the inspector in elementary schools. The tendency is to give more attention to watching the oral lessons or whatever work is proceeding—perhaps there is more to be learned in this way of a teacher's efficiency, of his adaptability and resource, where as in secondary schools he has had a higher general education, though often untrained, than where a teacher has imbibed his principles from special courses. There is also, of course, more time for an individual inspector, who is one of a group of five or six spending several days at a single school, to probe deeply into various aspects of the teaching of his subject than for one or two inspecting officers spending usually less time in an elementary school of equal size.

The Board of Education provides its inspectors with forms in the shape of printed note-books detailing the points regularly investigated and subheadings suggesting lines of inquiry under each. The main points comprise the following:—

> Full Inspection arrangements — Time-table — Staff—Syllabus—Analysis of Time-table—Notes on the time-table—on the staff—on the subject syllabuses—Points from the preceding Full Inspection Report—Notes for Conference with the Governing Body—Premises and Equipment—Curriculum and Organisation—Junior Schools—Notes on lessons heard—Number and ages of pupils.

The inspector charged with compiling the report, who for schools other than the non-local public schools (like Rugby, Repton, etc.), is the district inspector, uses a slightly more elaborate from with additional headings for notes on the

governing body, the nature and scope of the school, finance, scholarships, exhibitions, the headmaster and assistant staff, the general school activities and corporate life, and general conclusions. Before the inspection begins each inspecting officer is also furnished with a copy of the time-table and curriculum from which he can extract the particulars he wants for his part of the work. And each inspector has access also to the previous report upon the school.

The reporting inspector is in general charge of the inspection, and it is his business—besides distributing the work in consultation with his colleagues—to investigate separately the more general circumstances and activities of the school, corresponding to the additional headings mentioned above, together with its curriculum and organisation, premises, equipment and time-table. The form with which he is provided amounts in fact to a detailed questionnaire, the items upon which he discusses with the headmaster at a time—usually at the beginning of the inspection—set apart for the purpose. The elaborate nature of the questionnaire may be illustrated from the series of items noted under two of the main headings, *viz.*:—

Premises and Equipment, from the point of view of school efficiency, including—

(*a*) Accessibility and situation of buildings.

(*b*) Number, size, arrangement, suitability, and general appearance of class-rooms; school hall; library; laboratories; accommodation for housecraft; rooms, including lavatories, for assistant staff, etc.; ventilation, heating, and lighting; provision and condition of sanitary arrangements, including offices and lavatories; and arrangements for periodic testing of drains; fire appliances and means of escape.

(*c*) Furniture and apparatus (including maps, pictures, musical instruments, etc.), noting provision (if any) (*i*) of works of reference, (*ii*) of lending library, (*iii*) of museum.

(*d*) Playground, gymnasium, swimming bath, changing rooms, playing fields, or other provision for games and outdoor exercises. Adequacy and accessibility of grounds, etc., provided.

(*e*) *In the case of boarding houses, including hostels:* single rooms, cubicles or open dormitories, studies;

dining-room, library, preparation room, common room for pupils; changing rooms; sanitary arrangements, including supply of baths, internal and external offices, lavatory basins, etc.; provision of sick rooms or isolation wing, with separate sanitary arrangements. Precautions against fire; means of escape and fire appliances. Provision for effective supervision.

Curriculum and Organisation.—In this connection school documents, *e.g.*, Prospectus, Pupil's Report Form, Registers of attendance, conduct, progress, etc., should be consulted.

(*a*) Admission—(*i*) Tests adopted, whether graduated and systematically applied;

(*ii*) Special arrangements for classifying pupils from P. E. Schools;

(*iii*) Remarks on extent to which such pupils (including P.T's.) are fully incorporated in the school.

(*b*) Curriculum and Time Analysis. (Form 2 S., page 2; Form 3 S.)

(*i*) Main characteristics of the school, special bias (if any); Courses or Sides (if any); main subject groups, compulsory, voluntary, alternative. Note the Forms or Sets in which the several languages and the other important subjects are begun and are discontinued. Specialisation (if any) and special courses. Balance of studies, satisfactory or otherwise.

(*ii*) School hours—total per week, general length of lesson periods; amount of home-work.

(*iii*) Distribution of time amongst different subjects, and of daily and weekly periods.

(*c*) Organisation, Form and Set system; provision for securing grading of pupils and proper relations of the work in succeeding stages; promotions, annual or otherwise; superannuation.

(*d*) Examinations. External and internal—their influence on the work. Are the external examina-

tions selected suitable for the School? (Application to Pupil-Teachers.)

(*e*) Class-room discipline. Application and diligence of the pupils. System of recording work (marks, reports). Rewards and punishments. Detention, extent and nature. Written work, and home-work, whether properly arranged and tested.

(*f*) Pupil-Teachers and Student-Teachers. Method of organisation and effect on general system.

(*g*) General standard of work attained.

The advantages of a fixed elaborate detail of inquiry are open to question. In theory a list of topics covering all the important aspects of a school should remind an officer on matters that may else escape his memory and assist towards a complete survey of the school. It is also true that a detailed investigation of this kind often opens up interesting side issues that might else be missed. A secondary inspector has stated that the discussions to which the questionnaire gives rise are one of the most valuable means in the inspection for bringing out the school's distinctive character. Perhaps,—but it is equally arguable that this even attention to a regular succession of details is just as likely to withdraw observation from a school's distinctive peculiarities, or to satisfy the inspecting conscience when important features of the school are overlooked. The fixed questionnaire may also be considered a superfluously circuitous method of arriving at essential facts. In general practice indeed an inspector, who knows his job, knows also just how far he as an individual can dispense with inspecting 'mnemonics,' and few experienced inspectors make much use of them.

During the conduct of the full inspection inspecting officers have opportunities—formal and informal—of comparing notes on the results of their work, and incidentally of suggesting any points for general attention that may occur, and towards the end of the period it is usual for the inspecting staff to have a more formal discussion to arrive at a common view on the worth of the school and the qualities of the staff, etc. The inspecting process is thus, in effect, a gradual arriving at common conclusions on the part of the several investigators, working more or less independently.

The headmaster in the meantime is in constant contact with one or other inspecting officer, thus assisting in the detail

ed inspection of his own school. At the close of the inspection a conference is held of the inspectors with members of the governing body, first usually in the absence of the school principal, to raise matters affecting him personally, and then, for more general topics, with him present.

The report compiled by the reporting inspector from the contributions of his colleagues and his own findings is written on a form officially provided of some sixty foolscap pages, with headings and points of inquiry sufficiently comprehensive to cover the ground common to schools of all sorts, and to enable the inspector to treat or omit as he thinks fit. The report aims at supplying, for official use, data as to the efficiency of the school, and at presenting for the information of governors and the local authority a readily intelligible survey of the school. The report form or file comprises not only this report for publication, but a copy of any notes to be kept for the inspector's information but not included in the published report, and a minute of the conference held with the board of governors.

Such a report may occupy—in addition to statistical information—anything from ten to twenty foolscap pages, and, dealing as it does once in three or four years with every important aspect of the school's activities, would be one of a series, the whole of which should form a continuous history of the school's development punctuated by a detailed exposition of its state at successive intervals of time.

It would probably not be worth while to give samples of matter recorded under the headings dealing with the general constitution and organization of the school. The following example illustrates the detailed way in which particular subjects of instruction are dealt with:—

Mathematics. 'The school has lost the very able master who was responsible for this subject at the time of the last inspection, but his successor, who had the advantage of working with him for some years, is well qualified, is a strong and capable master who is not only a good teacher himself but is well able to give his colleagues useful guidance and help. Of these one only has substantial mathematical qualifications, the others, though they are doing useful work, need more help than they are at present getting, either because they are young and inexperienced or because they are not mathematicians. It would probably be a great advantage if the Chief Master could not only give, as he does give, useful directions in writing or at meetings, but if he visited his colleagues at work in their

classrooms, so that he could more thoroughly know their difficulties and be in a better position to help.

The four highest forms are re-divided into Sets (at present five, but with the shrinkage of these forms the number may be reduced). In these sets the boys do Algebra, Geometry, Trigonometry and some mechanics, with higher work in the top set. In addition Arithmetic is done in forms, and there are two special sets for more advanced mechanics. The style of the work done is indicated by the requirements of the Civil Service Examination.

In the rest of the school the work is done in forms, and in most cases Masters take one form only, so that a good many men are concerned. In some of the lower forms the work has been upset by change of teachers during the term owing to the war.

While a great deal of steady conscientious work is being done, the general impression was formed that the standard reached was not as high as it ought to be. Only in one case is the teaching bad, but in too many there seemed to be a lack of clearness and force, due often to lack of appreciation of what was really important, as distinct from mere matters of convention or insignificant detail. The custom of the school is to attach great importance to homework, and to mark it carefully, and further to go through it all on the blackboard. This, of course, is excellent within limits, but in many cases it leads to work being done on the blackboard which the majority had already done right, and of those who had not many had made trivial mistakes that they should themselves have corrected. The result is that during lessons boys are often doing little; they probably miss too the little bit of help given at the right time when they are in real difficulty that would enable a boy to go on by himself, getting instead the excessive help that tends towards weakness.'

The full inspection has been dealt with at some length because it is the characteristic feature of secondary school inspection. The district (or more accurately—as his area may comprise more than one district—the territorial) inspector is also engaged, in intervals between full inspection, upon casual visits to the schools in his area. It is his business to know his schools as intimately as his time permits, and to be available for consultation with their head masters or managing boards or with the local authorities on any question that may arise.

In other ways the short visit has an important place in the inspecting economy; it can serve different purposes effectually,

provided it does not attempt too much. At a casual visit an officer has an opportunity of watching, and possibly guiding, the progress of reforms previously recommended; or he can remove any doubt he may hold of the merits of some particular experiment or line of action, or of the work of a teacher, or he may explain some innovation that may be part of his general policy for his area, and for which he thinks the school in question favourable ground, or he may investigate some branch or feature of school work which he is inquiring into generally, or, again, he is sometimes justified in coming merely for a talk with the headmaster or his staff on school topics or things in general—this especially in cases where there is personal difference or mistrust. The casual visit or inspection covers a number of useful purposes, and alike in secondary and elementary inspection is an essential part of the inspector's work; the important point is to confine it to some object that it can achieve in the time, and not to base on it a report meant to convey a general impression of the school's value.

This plan of conducting once in four or five years with the help of a group of specialists a thorough investigation of each important school, when compared with the less uniform elementary inspection system, which leaves the nature and period of inspections more to the individual inspector, raises questions of practical interest. Assuming inspection to serve as a means of incentive and guidance to a school, there is the question of its frequency. From this point of view, it seems an obvious thing to say that, *primâ facie*, a bad school needs inspecting frequently, and a good school infrequently, if indeed at all. And if so, the plan of seeing all schools at regular intervals is unsound. On the other hand it is often the authorities of the better schools, who have more to hope from the results of the inspection and less to fear, especially of schools with higher aspirations that feel the need of help and encouragement, who actually welcome inspection in spite of the ordeal which it involves. No hard and fast rule of frequency can, indeed, be laid down, it cannot be regulated with the school's place in a scale of excellence. Some good secondary schools — especially the large public 'non-local' schools—might resent outside interference, through a dislike of having 'to toe the line' and a fear of being measured to arbitrary standards of uniformity; some really bad schools would gain little by inspection in any case, and continue in the old grooves. The only safe rule is to do without rules, and to arrange inspections when and where they seem, on the merits of each case, to be needed. At any

rate—as an incentive and guide—the inspection at fixed intervals seems to have little in its favour; it may result in vain repetition here or be insufficiently frequent elsewhere.

In the abstract again there is something to be said against the nature of the full inspection as such. All schools do not require the same general or thorough treatment, for which the 'full' inspection with the detailed questionnaire provides. It is usually superfluous to repeat—even at four-yearly intervals—an examination into much in a school's constitution, general character and organisation, that may remain constant for long periods. Indeed, where the district inspector has remained—as he is supposed to remain—in contact with the school from year to year, he must come to the 'full' inspection already familiar with the main facts about the school, and any elaborate procedure should be unnecessary. The other feature of the inspection is the use made of specialists. The value of the specialist's investigation and advice depends especially upon the individual. Theoretically, no one should be better able to offer useful advice and guidance on the teaching of any particular subject than the man who has made that subject his special study. But in practice if he is to use his knowledge with success, certain conditions must be fulfilled. He should, in the first place, be familiar not only with the subject but with the methods of its presentation, and with these not only in principle but from personal practice. Otherwise the working teacher whom he advises might be better equipped for inspecting than the inspector himself. Again, he must not be committed to any one method of teaching in particular, or at any rate he must be very careful not to let his pre-possessions affect his estimate of the school's teaching; he should be able to judge the actual method in vogue without bias and in the light of the actual aims and circumstances of the teaching. Further, he must avoid the specialist's tendency to exaggerate the importance of his subject, and to demand special attention, and possibly a special place, for it on the time-table. Besides this, he must often be content to let well alone; the temptation of the efficient officer is to justify his existence by suggesting positive improvements rather than to let a keen teacher work out his own salvation. A good inspector may be content merely to pronounce a blessing. And lastly it is often true of the specialist that he is more interested in his subject than he is in human nature, his very absorption restricts the range of his vision, and he finds it hard to view his speciality in its relation to the general work and purpose of the school, or to the capaci-

ties of the general run of pupils, or to the available time and skill of the ordinary teacher. He falls out of sympathy with the personal element in the problem, and expects too much.

The 'general' inspector, whose work it is to survey the school as a whole, is exposed to these temptations in nothing like the same degree, and may often interfere a great deal less in the teaching with greater benefit to the school. It is probably a mistake for a school to strain at high water mark all along the line: but the tendency of the 'group of specialists' inspection is inevitably towards this. An aggregate of separate minds cannot guide a school's progress so efficiently as a single all-round mind could. Each may patch up parts of the picture, but in so doing may produce disharmony: it requires the single artist to perfect the whole.

Not that specialist inspection should be altogether dispensed with; as part of a regular plan of complete investigation it is open to the defects, or charges, mentioned. But the occasional visit of a specialist, on invitation from the school authorities or from the district inspector with their consent, may be on a different footing. Where there is no intention of questioning the school's general ideals, but where instead the school itself feels the need of special help along some particular line the better to fulfil them, and where, in this case, the specialist is asked to advise on the conditions prescribed, he may do an invaluable service. The harm comes from imposition of advice or from alterations made from without, not from changes effected, with outside assistance, from within. The danger of 'group specialist' inspections is that they tend to disregard the aims and character of the school as a school, and consider it too much as an aggregate of classrooms.

It is questionable too whether the kind of completeness of survey in which the periodical detailed inspection by a group of specialists results is an object worth attaining. The effect, upon the inspector's method, of re-iterated detailed inspection from school to school is almost inevitably to shift the attention to comparatively trivial details away from the larger questions which the practice of a more general view of a school would consider. As a means of incentive and guidance, there is more advantage in an inspection that considers and comprehends the school as a whole than in one which omits no item in the school's work, and it is completeness—or rather comprehensiveness—in the former sense that is to be aimed at. The practical question for the inspector is not so much the question

of each particular subject 'in what is the teaching above or below the mark and how may it be bettered' or of different school activities in isolation 'what is their value or how may they develop,' as of the question of the good that the school is doing as a whole, and along what lines is this school, given its type of pupil, its means and equipment and financial possibilities, its relation to its environment, its present general aims and character, and the abilities and characteristics and possibilities of the staff, along what lines is it to work out its future progress, to what side of its curriculum is it to give most attention, in what directions, generally, is it now to turn? The details should then be weighed and considered in their bearing on the practical reply to this general question, and not in abstract relation to separate ideals of their own; and it is possible that much detail may be safely left unconsidered by the inspector altogether.

Again, it is only if comprehensiveness, rather than a detailed thoroughness, in inspection is aimed at, that any useful continuity of policy can be secured. The inspector—as a guide—cannot safely do more than indicate general principles or main lines of development: to go into details is to usurp, without the necessary qualifications for doing so, the functions of the teachers, the headmaster or the governing board. Where inspections are at four or five-yearly intervals, therefore, their most useful concern is with the school's general progress, with the success of its efforts along lines taken up since the last visit or in consequence of it or already followed at the time. What has to be avoided is the fresh inquiry into detail irrespective of history or present context—continuity of inspection is a *sine qua non* of continuity in recommendations. It is thus very necessary for officers comparatively unacquainted with the school to consult its past records and reports, and to leave a free hand to the district inspector in the use he makes of their contributions when embodying them in the report. Perhaps it is not too much to say that the specialist would be more usefully considered as an assistant to the general inspector working under his counsel and control than as an independent critic of this or that feature in the school.

Another point to consider in regard to these 'full' inspections is the ordeal they inflict upon the teachers. In school inspection all consideration is due to the ordinary susceptibilities of the teachers; and—it may be added—to those of the pupils also. A formal 'with notice' four or five-yearly inspection by

a group of officers is a formidable matter, and, it must be admitted, often makes a teacher very nervous, and places good and conscientious teachers at a disadvantage. It is the less easy for even a sympathetic inspector to do justice to their work. Nervousness takes curiously deceptive forms, not unusually that of a brusque sharp or obtrusive manner, or of excessive talkativeness, or of the reverse, lapses of memory, and hesitations, and various eccentricities in behaviour. It is right to give this deficiency of the formal inspection its due place, because it is one of the considerations that must supply the answer to the question whether, even for a secondary school, a judgment based upon a series of casual visits, with occasional assistance from a specialist in this or that subject, is not likely to produce a fairer and more helpful report than the long and detailed report based upon a thorough investigation into every aspect of the chool's work, carreid out at a single inspection at infrequent intervals.

CHAPTER VII.

The promotion of special movements in elementary education.

It is here proposed to allude to a number of movements in elementary education the promotion of which is at present a common policy amongst inspectors. These include—

1. The restoration of 'grind' in the classroom.
2. The encouragement of other than intellectual activity, including
3. The promotion of manual and outdoor pursuits.
4. The tendency to regard the individual rather than the class as the unit in education.
5. The promotion of greater elasticity and thoroughness in school organization.

During the thirty years preceding the last decade of the last century the 'faculty' pre-eminent in the class-room was the memory. The 'examination' system of inspection favoured this; and the memory had not yet been dethroned from its psychological pedestal. Intelligence, practical ability, self-reliance and resource, were at a discount—what was needed for success in the examination was a certain standard of attainment in the arts of reading, writing and arithmetic, and a certain amount of information in grammar, arithmetic, geography, object lessons, and other subjects. The gradual cessation of the examination, of the examination system of inspection, and of the grant system of payment for results, which marked the last decade of the nineteenth and early years of the twenticth century paralleled, as it also facilitated, a general endeavour amongst the Board's inspectors and other educationists, to free the school from traditional trammels and to introduce variety and independence in the curricula, and intelligence in the methods of teaching. The revolution in teaching was not effected all at once, but older teachers, who had resisted or disliked the customary method of mechanical drill, and younger teachers with new ideas from the training college, or not yet confirmed in the old ways, began to take advantage of the proffered freedom and to replace the discredited memory 'grind' with teaching that called for a general

exercise of intelligence. This was the epoch of the oral lesson, designed to evoke thought in the pupil by means of a succession of questions so graduated and ordered as to keep him, as it were, at a constant simmer of mental activity. Memory fell into discredit, and with it, by a false association, the individual continuous application to an uncongenial task that had been the mainstay of instruction for the public examination. The abandonment of the public examination, and the repudiation of the ancient shibboleths of instruction cast some things aside that were good along with the evil. Hard work on the part of the pupil fell out of favour—a false interpretation was made of the now fashionable doctrine of interest. In the old days school work had been repugnant; it was wrongly concluded that it was the work that caused the repugnance, and that therefore work should be more like play. It was above all to be interesting, to be liked. Whatever interest might have meant in theory the practice of interest was dangerously like the practice of what was easy and pleasant. That pupils should like what they do slips readily in practice into pupils doing what they like. The disappearance of an external examination made in the same direction—the plea of 'intelligent' methods, cultivating mental activity and slighting mental contents—was easy to raise against old fashioned people who still held by the test of 'results'; and where there was no examination to fear, and no accumulation of successes to aspire to, the teaching tended to be slack and showy instead of strenuous and to the point. Discipline correspondingly weakened; success in the old days had depended on the maintenance of rigid discipline; rules were memorised at the point of the rod. There was no need for this now, and the new ideas of interest and intelligence gave mechanical discipline a bad name. Meantime a policy imposed for a while upon inspectors of 'masterful inactivity' as an inspection method lent countenance to exhibition teaching that made no attempt to drive its lessons home.

The endeavours of the inspectorate at the present day—a process perhaps often half-conscious, but for that reason the more constant and 'natural'—are towards a restoration of the balance. Memory is being reinstated, the faults of looseness and inaccuracy are being remedied or exposed, and faith in steady hard work is reviving.

One finds, for example, a frequent advocacy of long arithmetic exercises on known rules, to impart or test the power of sheer continuous concentration as a complement to the short miscellaneous problems of the 'intelligence' era intended to

exercise the power of thought; in spelling there is an occasional belief in drill, provided the words are otherwise familiar, as a useful accessory to more incidental and casual methods of teaching orthography, and the idea that spelling doesn't matter, because it tests memory and not intelligence, once fashionable, is seldom expressed. In reading again the practice of silent study of a passage both for selecting the gist and for committing it to memory for reproduction, is a combination of thinking and memorising now in favour; and the days of mechanical 'reading aloud' have past. Many inspectors and experienced headmasters have deliberately championed the cause of thoroughness and accuracy especially in mathematical work—where inaccuracy most readily revenges itself in failure—and in written compositions, and, in some cases, in the various forms of handwork, because they have experienced the effects of the new intelligent régime, and have set themselves to counteract them. There is also a tendency to reinstate the three R's, to restore the old foundations of the instructional fabric, and to admit as much mechanical drill and practice as is necessary to inculcate habits of quick calculation, legible handwriting, correctly pronounced reading, and properly spelt composition. Advocates of such reforms are supported by voices outside the class-room—employers have been found to complain that youths enter their employ less careful, industrious and accurate at their work than in former years, and within the educational precincts themselves the ex-elementary pupil's lack of grounding in the elementary subjects is sometimes deprecated by the authorities of secondary schools and technical institutions.

If however there is a marked trend towards the reinstatement of memory and of careful work, this must not be taken to imply a return to 'cram' in the sense of unintelligent memorising or mechanical drill. What strikes a visitor to elementary schools to-day in contrast with ten or fifteen years ago is the increased general activity of the pupils. The last quarter of a century has witnessed three stages of change. In the first stage there was a pronounced activity within a very narrow range, an activity that was neither wide nor deep, a concentration of a part of a person on a part of a job—a shallow if thorough learning. Then came a stage in which the thoroughness went and the shallowness lingered. The pupil's activity was replaced by the teacher's. It was the era of the supremacy of the oral lesson. The teacher was always teaching, and the pupil being taught. Meantime the range of the curriculum widened, and if activity

was less, activities were more. To-day a third stage is being entered upon, in which with more and more varied activities, activity is deepening also. More of the pupil is being put into his work, and he is doing work which appeals to more sides of him. In the first place in his more definitely 'intellectual' studies, more of his mind is being engaged; and, in the second, the school's activities are overflowing into more and more physical channels, or, to put it more accurately, in the attempt to bring the whole compass of the pupil within the school, his more physical capacities are coming into their own. That this ideal is as yet fully realised cannot be asserted, but a cross-section cut in English elementary education will reveal repeated examples of this main principle at work, none the less, indeed the more truly, exemplifying it because the instance is but dimly conscious of the principle behind it.

Take the teaching of geography as an illustration. In the first of the three stages suggested above the teaching of geography was confined to the memorising of isolated items of information—capes and rivers, and capital towns. In the second stage the teacher attempted to teach a geography lesson, with some attention to cause and effect, through a succession of graduated questions, and a neat summary of the matter upon the blackboard. The pupil's activity in this process was not intense—each step was so clearly indicated that he could scarcely help taking it, and he found his journey repeated for him in reduced scale at the end. In the third stage the oral lesson is only occasional; instead the pupil is set definite geographical problems, which, with the aid of his own atlas—with maps showing the same regions in a series of different aspects, the 'physical feature' maps dominant—he sits at his desk and sets to thinking out for himself. The results of his investigation he may express as a written composition, or perhaps in the form of a graph or a drawing. In this case he is expected to think continuously unaided, instead of—as in the case of the oral lesson—being given a moment only to tender the reply to an easy question; for the question that involves no thinking is not worth asking. The 'mental' process implies also thoughtful observation, some patient grouping or comparison of what he has observed, and the drawing of inferences; and this is followed by a careful and orderly registration of his results. Here the activity is real; there is a continuous grappling with difficulties to compass a particular end. The pupil—not a fragment of him—is at definite work; his mind is absorbed.

Another illustration may be taken from the teaching of reading, in which silent reading is now very generally practised. In the early stage the habit to be inculcated was that of mechanical reading aloud with sufficiently correct pronunciation; later the oral lesson again emphasised simple reading aloud, though it may have paid more attention to intelligent expression and to understanding of the matter read. But the third stage is being reached when the pupil is expected to treat the reading passage in the same way in which he will usually have to treat the written and the printed word in the ordinary business of life, namely, to understand it and to form some appreciation of the contents in their bearing on his life, whether immediate and practical, or permanent and spiritual. Pupils are now to be seen in schools seated at their desks reading and *considering* a reading passage, finding out what it is all about, and afterwards either reproducing its meaning, or answering questions bearing upon it, solving problems put in connection with it, or carrying out processes of which the passage forms a description. The making of things from printed data, drawings to written descriptions, the unaided execution of geometrical constructions, are instances in point. In any case it is the interpretation, the carrying over into life and practice, of what is read, that involves a more real and searching mental activity on the part of the pupil than either the reading aloud as taught in the oral lesson or the mechanical correct pronunciation that was the staple feature of reading half a century ago.

Activity then is more real—more a genuine exercise of the whole person—than it was; and it is also, for the same reason, exhibited in more varied occupations. Physical activity is not excluded from its share in a pupil's class-room life.

The day is no longer a series of sedentary occupations punctuated with recesses. There is more stir and go in the proceedings. A pupil is less often writing, or listening, or reading, or doing sums. In his mathematical period it is no longer remarkable if he is measuring the playground, or estimating, on the spot, the practical requirements for laying out a patch in the school garden, or working out a graph of the month's weather phenomena from personal outdoor observations, or taking measurements for an exact comparison of the effects of different treatments upon some plant kept for the purpose. There is a limit, of course, to this kind of 'practical' work in mathematics; if carried to excess, it may easily retard or reduce the exercise of abstract reasoning. But it must not be assumed from these examples that the revolution towards

'active' study has more than begun. Illustrations given here are culled at random from here and there—schools that have moved far in this direction are rare—and are meant to indicate the kind of thing that inspectors as a body are encouraging in the elementary schools, rather than an existing general practice. They represent a trend—an early and uneven advance.

Composition, similarly, more frequently entails 'active' preparation. The topics chosen in most schools are no longer abstract and remote, nor too 'old' for a child, but treat of matters known, and often occurring, to the children themselves. A child now describes what he does, or did, or means to do; what he sees and hears, and is occasionally indeed even put to doing and discovering something with a view to writing about it afterwards. Excursions—in connection with geography, or nature study, or perhaps history—are arranged, and a pupil has to express himself on the subject afterwards, not necessarily in writing; it may be in drawing, or modelling, or even manual construction. In any case the 'active' work or exercise is a part of a whole process which includes composition, which is often the end, in time order, but not always so—construction for instance, might follow, if a process, within the pupil's power of reproducing, were the subject of the composition, or some further experiment or observation, in the case of a phenomenon in nature study. What is of moment here is that composition is no longer a mere written reproduction of matter heard or read in class, or painfully evolved from the non-existent in the pupil's consciousness (as in the days of essays on 'courage' or 'honesty is the best policy') but is repeatedly related to the actual and 'active' pursuits of the pupil, and, in fact, depends on such activities. On the mainly intellectual side of the curriculum the revolution towards a more varied and general activity has actually been carried further in the choice of composition topics than elsewhere. Experiments in 'activity' are naturally sometimes ill-advised. The 'dramatic' teaching of history, for instance, is occasionally a tedious attempt to connect 'activity' with a subject formerly entirely bookish. Whatever may be said of 'dramatized' history teaching at its best, it is not a method that can be safely made general. The 'drama' bears little—often a farcical—resemblance to the real thing, and though it may assist the pupil to remember a few important points, less vividly impressed through reading or listening, it is a cumbersome way of doing so, and misleads as much as it informs the imagination of a child. A more

sensible co-relation of the history teaching with the active life of a pupil is that which relates it to local history and objects and places of interest, and sets him visiting, or gathering information about, them. Actual constructive work is also sometimes connected with history (*e.g.*, the modelling, or wooden construction of a castle moat), but this has to be very carefully done from accurate knowledge if it is to be true to fact.

Apart from active work subordinate to mainly intellectual studies, occupations bulk larger in the curricula that are mainly 'active' in their character, that are exhibited, namely, in mainly physical performances. Dancing, for example, not the conventional 'dancing and deportment' of English drawing rooms and ladies' academics, but vigorous country dances and the more set 'morris' dances, marching to music, and even physical interpretation of musical rhythms. Singing has long been general both in boys' and girls' schools. There is a special staff inspector for school music. Physical drill and exercises also are universally practised, and a visitor to the elementary schools, who knew them a quarter of a century ago, would be struck by the interpenetration of the time-table with various kinds of bodily activity.

Part and parcel of this general movement towards greater and more varied activity in school life is the growing importance attached to what may be known as the 'practical' subjects; specifically 'domestic' subjects (laundry, cooking, housewifery, first aid) and needlework for girls, woodwork and other handicraft and gardening for boys; and 'nature study' and drawing for both sexes. These subjects not only themselves contribute largely to the 'active' character that is beginning to permeate elementary school pursuits, but also influence in the same direction the teaching in other subjects in the curriculum. Thus arithmetic and composition—oral as well as written—can clearly be made to bear upon prices and processes and measurements in domestic subjects or gardening; and geography can be taught in its bearing upon soils, or articles in common use, or timbers or other material used in handicraft. All sorts of correlations can easily be set up in practice; but it must be admitted that there is room for much more co-ordination between the 'practical' and the 'intellectual' subjects than yet exists. Unfortunately, the principle of correlation was introduced too hastily into English education within the present century; its psyohological basis was not understood by ordinary teachers who could yet readily suggest

and invent all sorts of ways of relating one subject or one subject-branch to another in practice; correlation rapidly became a fashion, and the practice was carried, especially in the 'younger' classes, to unreasonable lengths; the teaching of one subject was warped from its proper function for the sake of correlation with another, or instruction in several subjects was disordered to establish connections between them. For this, and for other reasons, co-ordination in the teaching between different subjects is being treated a little shyly in the schools to-day, and it will take time to establish a sober equilibrium.

The growth of genuine, as distinct from artificial, activity in elementary schools, is when broadly considered only part of a more general movement which includes a changing attitude towards the individual pupil in a class. In the days of inspection by examination and of 'payment for results' the individual pupil was in a special sense the unit of instruction. The purpose of the teacher being to secure as many passes in the examination as possible, each pupil was looked upon in the light of a possible pass, and so as a grant earning agent. The means were adapted to this strictly practical aim. The good pupils were comparatively neglected—they would pass in any case; the medium pupils had a fair share of attention, but the weak pupils had most. But the point is that the pupils were not considered for their own sakes, but as pawns in a game, or as possible pennies in a pound. With the passing of the old order the 'level class' still continued to persist as the aim in school organization and teaching—the class became the unit of instruction rather than the individual pupil. A class had to be even, if it was to be economically taught, or else the instruction that suited one end of it would be wasted on the other. The idea was to carry the pupils along evenly from the beginning to the end of the year, and the ideal was to present the lot of them as ready for promotion. It may be observed that two causes contributed towards this policy, firstly, the practice of promotion by age, and secondly, the fetish of oral teaching. Promotion by age is a survival from 'examination' days—when standards and ages went together—and is not yet extinct; and it is clear that when pupils 'go up' every year, the only way of aligning your class for teaching is not to consider the needs or capacities of each individual pupil, and supply or exercise these, but to maintain an even dressing at all costs—at the cost, that is, of depressing the bright, and overworking the dull. Similarly, oral teaching—or rather the oral lesson—is most successful when the class before the

teacher is fairly even; otherwise, he either bores the clever with easy, or baulks the stupid, with difficult, questioning, or else attempts to carry on two lessons at the same time. But at last the stage is being reached when the individual pupil is coming into his own, and when the class exists for the pupil, not the pupil for the class. There are several indications of this tendency. The idea is spreading of allowing pupils increasing freedom to choose, within limits, their own particular pieces of work. Instances could be multiplied—it is common for children to select from a given list their favourite pieces of poetry for memorising or recitation. In drawing or 'art' subjects, so far as the time-table and the scope of the teacher's knowledge permits, individual pupils sometimes take up special lines, specializing, for instance, in design, or pen and ink work, or some form of colour-work. In nature study, though there are drawbacks to too ambitious or expanded courses, it is always possible for a pupil to collect beetles rather than butterflies, or to study plants from different points of view; one pupil —or group of pupils—may prefer to attempt artistic representations of natural subjects, another may be more interested in the 'whys' and 'wherefores' and 'hows'—the scientific aspect—of the subject. The tendency is, within particular limits, to admit individual preferences and aptitudes, and not to drive all the pupils along the same track. Perhaps the handicraft on the boys' side is the subject in which the adaptation to individual taste and capacity can be most varied. Here, in classes whose limit of number does not officially exceed twenty, the instructor's attention is largely individual, and, in every centre of handwork that I visited, the pupils were allowed to choose any special article they wished to make, so long as it did not involve operations clearly beyond their powers. Articles useful in the home, or required in the centre itself, playthings, and ingenious contrivances (often of the 'puzzle' nature); and sometimes material representations of botanical objects or geographical phenomena, or simple meteorological instruments, are amongst those chosen, according to the taste of the pupil, guided partly by the tradition of the class. He has also—a movement stimulated by the war—some freedom of choice in the material he will use, and in the different means of adapting it to its purpose, and he is often encouraged to turn to good use objects commonly discarded—old tins, cardboard boxes, broken articles of various kinds, packing cases, and so on: a tin cup emerges from a battered jam tin, and a flower pot out of a cardboard cream jar.

The handwork also illustrates another movement, in which the consideration of the individual rather than the class is evinced. The pupils are allowed freedom of individual progress—the good pupil is not retarded nor the weak pupil forced ahead. The rate of progress, as the choice of work, is largely individual. This movement towards the greatest possible consideration of the individual's needs and aptitudes is expressing itself in various changes that are beginning in the internal organisation of schools, and the matter is of sufficient general importance to deserve some separate exposition.

Organisation and Individuality.

A main purpose in school organisation is to ensure for each pupil instruction in those subjects, and in that subject-matter in each subject, and according to those methods, which suit his capacity and aptitudes at the time and best promote his future development. The problem indeed is how to make the best of every pupil, backward, mediocre, bright, and of different tastes and temperaments. Of course this can only be done by adapting his work to each child, and the elementary school need no longer be turned from this object by fear of public examination, or by any rigid rules of promotion and classification solely by age. A type of organisation is thus in demand which shall assign each pupil the work for which he is fit, and keep him progressing to higher and harder studies, without break of syllabus, as he becomes ready for them. The need for greater elasticity and complexity of system to facilitate this process is now beginning to be realised, and inspectors in their different areas are generally, and more or less systematically, engaged in attempting to solve the problem.

One method by which, within his class, a pupil's special interests are being more considered has already been mentioned, *viz.*, by allowing him, as far as practicable, latitude to choose his particular bit of work in the general scheme for the class.

But other methods are needed—to supplement this. Classes are big, running even up to sixty pupils—and in ordinary classification no teacher can show much variety of occupation or of standard over so large an area without muddle and inefficient supervision. Can the classes then be subdivided for separate treatment? or, if not, can steps be taken to prevent too great a variety of ability or attainment in any one class, so that individual treatment need be less various? One practical reply to the second question lies in re-classification for different

subjects. The custom in elementary schools has been to keep pupils in the same class for all subjects—a simple system by which with an assignment of teachers to classes rather than to subjects the framing of time-tables is child's play. But it has the disadvantage of retarding a pupil's progress in his best subjects till he has 'caught up' in others. Yet it is just in excellence in any special lines that a pupil's individuality is expressed, and the effect of this uniform system of classification is thus to suppress, rather than to evoke, individual talent. Mathematical ability, and artistic talent, are often peculiarly individual and separate, and experience is abundantly showing that pupils backward in bookwork often find their true bent when they take up the more 'practical' subjects—handicraft again and again is proving the salvation of the backward scholar. Though there is as yet no general move towards 're-classification,' enterprise in this direction is being steadily encouraged. An experiment in 'practical' education has for example been recently tried in the Lindsey division of Lincolnshire and in the South-West division, according to which (in the latter for example) some twenty schools, varying in number from thirty to over two hundred pupils, have set aside three afternoons weekly for 'practical' subjects, chosen, for boys, from amongst the following: gardening, woodwork, cardboard modelling, practical arithmetic, nature study, drawing, bee-keeping and matting; and for girls from needlework, cookery, housecraft, laundrywork, nature study and flower gardening, dressmaking and rug—and mat-making; and for younger children from paper-folding, modelling in clay and cardboard, practical measuring and drawing, raffia and basketwork. The advantage of simultaneous practical work for the whole school is that it makes possible a complete re-classification in those subjects, so that a pupil in the second or third class in his general school work may be in, say, the first or fourth section or class for practical pursuits; and his promotion in these is independent of his progress elsewhere. The system is the less practicable in large schools, where special rooms for some forms of practical work might thus be crowded at the same time, but in smaller schools—especially in rural schools with space for gardening—it is easily worked; and is being favourably reported upon by the teachers, as fostering resourcefulness and self-reliance and general intelligence, and frequently discovering special aptitudes in the otherwise dull pupil.

There is also a fairly general advocacy of a policy of 'sectioning' within classes. The class teacher subdivides his class

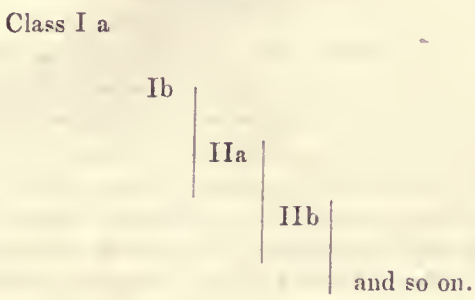
into two—sometimes three—groups according to their general progress, and so arranges his time-table that oral teaching falls to one group only at a time. This may be done all the way up the school. Thus in different classes some forms of handwork for one group may sychronise with a reading lesson for another, an arithmetic oral lesson with drawing and writing, transcription with a nature lesson, and so on. And in higher classes the better pupils may study a reading passage quietly, or make notes upon what they have read, while another group is being taken orally in reading; and again in arithmetic one group may be left to do without explanation exercises that with another require oral preparation by the teacher, or may be set harder work to grapple with alone. A growing confidence in pupils' independent study facilitates the arranging of time-tables on these lines.

It will be gathered that this plan of sectioning implies a corresponding differentiation in syllabuses. In some schools this is not explicitly recognised, the 'better' section merely doing harder or more detailed or less assisted work on a common syllabus, that is to say, within the same range of topics. The advance is then 'concentric' rather than continuous, or in the mere capacity for working the same course alone. But the idea is spreading of making explicit differences in the syllabuses for the class sections, the different groups covering rather different ground. As soon, however, as this step is taken, the class in effect becomes two classes, one higher and the other lower. If this movement is carried up the school the number of school classes has practically been doubled. This raises the questions of the frequency of promotion, and of co-ordination of syllabuses within and between the classes. Attempts are being made to answer these questions.

As regards promotions, the prevailing practice of annual promotion is a survival from the 'mechanical' era of last century when pupils were promoted yearly simply according to their age. In those days a pupil endured the whole school course to the end, whether he was fit for it or not, or till he reached the minimum age of exemption. The main general change that has taken place in the present century has been in the direction of retarding promotion for the unfit; acceleration has been less frequent. At the same time the syllabuses have also usually remained fixed courses for a year's work in each class. The movement already indicated towards a better adjustment of the courses to the pupil's requirements, has however in several schools been carried further, and the rate of promotion has

been varied in accordance. The plan is not uncommon, for instance, of supplementing a 'double-class' system with half-yearly syllabuses, often overlapping into the syllabuses for the class above and the class below. A kind of zigzag organisation results which may be graphically represented as follows:—

Syllabus.



On this principle a sharp pupil may pass from class Ia to class IIa after six months without dislocation of work, while a dull pupil may spend a whole year in Ia and an ordinary pupil may complete the courses of Ia and Ib in a year. The syllabus for Ib will in this case be not necessarily a mere repetition of the last half of Ia and the first half of IIa syllabus, but might both recapitulate and cover more difficult parts of previous ground. In the abstract this scheme provides for retardation or acceleration of promotion by six-monthly considerations of each pupil's case, and thus each pupil may advance unevenly up the school. In practice this plan is most feasible in schools of some three hundred to four hundred pupils in which six (or seven) standards can thus be duplicated without necessitating an excessive staff.

The tendency in the past in schools of this or larger size, has been to overweight the school at the bottom by duplicating lower classes while sometimes actually combining classes at the top.

Thus the number in schools of from four to five hundred pupils entail their division into nine, ten or eleven classes, against an average school life—on an annual promotion basis—of seven years. In those schools it was usual to have 'double' classes at the bottom, and on the old system of fixed syllabuses for the seven standards (or years of school life) it was not possible to find room in the single upper classes for all the pupils coming up from the double classes below, except by

accelerating the flow of promotion above. This subordinates the interests of the pupil to the convenience of a rigid system of classification. Amongst other improvements upon this organisation is that, obtaining in one school, of deserting the annual promotion principle altogether, and dividing the school into nine continuous classes with eight-monthly or nine-monthly syllabuses. In this way a pupil regularly promoted ascends the scale in six or seven years.

In a group of schools with A and B sections, the syllabuses for the B section covered the same series of main topics as in the A section, but eliminated details and gave a simpler treatment all through. The B classes too were rather smaller, and individuals received more separate assistance. They worked more slowly, but it did not follow that they were otherwise mentally inferior. In many cases it was found that they caught up their fellows in higher classes and proved as capable in the end.

Such experiments in classification suffice to illustrate one attempt that is now being made in English elementary education so to organise the school as to consider the needs of the individual. The difficulty in schools in which each teacher may stand for thirty to forty pupils, and a class may contain as many as sixty, is to provide for children of very varying kinds and rates of mental development. Some children are precocious, some are dull all through, some lag early and then spurt ahead. Some think slowly, but correctly; others quickly and correctly, and some, again, quickly but erratically, and some are both dull and slow. Different types of mentality require careful adjustment both of rates of promotion and of mental treatment and fare. The schemes alluded to above merely indicate the first step in a tentative advance towards a greater elasticity of organisation in English elementary schools, and will no doubt lead later to further and more variable methods of providing for the fuller development of each individual child.

What has been attempted in this chapter is to give the impression produced on an outside observer introduced into English elementary education at a moment of transition, who accordingly is concerned to discover what the chief movements at the moment are, and to exhibit them in as clear a light as possible. And his concern is more with a study of what the more advanced educationalists are attempting to do, than with what is the present condition of the average schools. An in-

spector is a dealer in futures; and therefore the several illustrations in this report though taken from actual practice must not be interpreted as a picture of ordinary English elementary education as it is, but rather of English elementary education as it is becoming, or of conditions which inspectors as a body —along with the better teachers and other educationists—are attempting to make more general in the schools. The changes here indicated are, accordingly, as yet in various early stages, and have still to mature. It is the work of the inspectorate to survey each stage in a movement, to observe what is already being done here and there by teachers who have grasped the new ideas, and to spread them in their practical application up and down the country. The inspector does not in practice so much originate as interpret or communicate: he guides rather than leads, or, if he leads, it is more usually than otherwise by disseminating the teaching of other leaders. At the same time he must exercise on all new enthusiasms the control of sober commonsense.

It is of interest in this connection to instance from a conference held this year of the women inspectorate, the constant recurrence of the idea of promoting individual activity, and activities appropriate to the individual, in the minds of the speakers, and the actual position of the schools as gathered from the views expressed by members of the Conference. The very fact that no item in the agenda dealt specifically with this point makes the dominance of the idea of individual activity the more significant. Three of the twelve topics for discussion reflect the idea directly—'Is there any increase in the self-governing idea in elementary schools?' and the questions of 'Private study in the Elementary School,' and of 'Modifications of the curriculum in higher classes of Public Elementary Schools with regard to special needs of girls in after life.' In the discussion on the last topic, for example, the present position of the schools in relation to this aspect of the individualistic movement is indicated. "It is found that while in many districts there was little or nothing to report, some attempts are being made to cope with the problems mentioned.....and that the results of those attempts are very promising. The authorities (that is, the local bodies in charge of education) had got to the stage of asking 'What do the girls want?' There was found to be 'a very considerable increase in the number of school leaving classes for backward girls who instead of remaining in the low standards for which their attainments qualify them, are transferred at twelve or twelve and a half to special

classes which devote much time to domestic subjects, needlework, laundrywork, and baby care. Many teachers also take considerable trouble to find employment for their old girls in businesses of various sorts and to give them special coaching for the purpose before leaving school.' Again, several speakers remarked that the elder girls were not given enough responsibility and that they had little or no opportunity of exercising a choice at school. On the other hand instances were given of schools where the elder girls are expected to arrange their own work within certain limits. They are not treated as a class but as individuals. There is preparation set in every subject; it is the business of each girl to fit the preparation into the time at her disposal. Books are on the table for them to fetch as they require them. Bells are not required, the girls moving to the time-table of their own accord. Other schools were mentioned which gave some choice in hobbies, by setting apart one afternoon a week on which a girl could choose her own occupation, but having chosen she was bound to stick to it for three months. The general opinion was however that hobbies were much more encouraged in boys' schools than in girls".....In another case the girls were made responsible for the order and cleanliness of the school, and took it in turns to look after the babies and to take charge of the school dinner. A suggestion was made " that in a country district more use might be made of the children's natural love of collecting by developing the nature study and geography on lines of local interest and encouraging them to collect 'intelligently.' " The ideas of adaptation of work to individual pupil's requirements, and of encouraging individual initiative, clearly pervade the whole discussion; and, apart from any formulated conclusions in which the conference might culminate, the various members who attended must have left for their respective areas with new applications of a main principle to attempt to communicate to such schools as seemed ready to receive them.

The idea of the preciousness of individuality, now becoming current in these elementary schools, owes, if not its birth, at any rate its present prominence, largely to a retired Chief inspector of the elementary schools who in his books 'What is and What Might be' and 'In Defence of What Might be,' has treated in terms of education the philosophical doctrines of 'self-realisation' and 'self-expression.' The idea of self-expression is a good deal in the air in elementary schools, and though the essence of Mr. Holmes' teaching has not been generally understood, and 'self-expression' has often become a con-

venient cover for inaccurate, careless, or irregular work, the main influence of the present vogue of individuality appears to be wholesome. It is noticeable that interpretations of the same ideas by Dr. Montessori, their missionary in the infant classroom, have not found general favour in English schools, or, at any rate, with English educated opinion as a whole, chiefly because by the time they reached England, they were seen to contain little or nothing new, and the doctrine of self-expression is by this time, through its inevitable abuse, being treated with caution.

There is also one gap which the movement towards 'individuality' in the schools leaves unfilled. The stress upon one aspect of school activity is diverting, or inhibiting attention from another. The complementary movement—if one may so call it—of co-operative or group action in the schools awaits its preacher and its missionary. The idea of co-operative study or occupation—though instances may be observed at haphazard—has not yet taken root. Where co-operation occurs, it is not so much in conscious obedience to the idea, as because it happens to be the obvious means of undertaking the work in hand. Co-operation has not been raised to the dignity of a principle. In the case of handicraft, for example, where a big article involving several operations has to be made, it is natural to call upon several pupils to contribute; one makes one table leg, another another and a third the flat top, and so on. And in such a case a teacher here and there has begun to recognise the educational, as well as practical, advantages in this group work—one result can be measured against another, accuracy is tested, if the different parts of the structure are to fit and both legs (for example) to be true to a common measure; and the pupils learn from one another by consulting over common difficulties; they 'put their heads together' and they grow to realise the practical necessity of compromise. But no one has yet, so far as I could gather or noticed, deliberately attempted to spread the 'co-operative' idea in instruction in the schools. Instances were lacking in which the pupils in an advanced class take up different lines in their history passage, one group trying, for example, to infer from his conduct the character of some historical personage, another group looking for exceptions to a trait suggested by the teacher, and a third considering how some other hero of history would have acted in the same circumstances.

There is scope in schools for much combination work of this kind. In regard to compositions, though subjects chosen now-

a-days are generally suitable to the age and experience of the pupils, the idea of setting different sections to treat different aspects of the same topic, and so contribute to a common product of the whole class, is as yet absent. Yet with the present attention to common practical and outdoor occupations, and their co-ordination with work in composition, the ground is obviously ready for this next step. One group of pupils might consider the differences between similar plants, another their similarities, a third could compare their general characteristics with plants of another species. The total would be a body of information valuable and available to all. The different contributions as they are made might supply a useful exercise in oral composition for the group, and the whole the subject of written or oral work for the class. Geography, mathematics, even English reading or grammar, and indeed every subject in the school curriculum is susceptible of some application of the co-operative principle. Its scope need not be confined to the 'practical' occupations only, in which it at present figures as an incidental help. A movement to supplement the cult of 'individuality' with the cult of 'association' would add a power in education that made for a fuller and deeper individuality in itself—for men are not made by developing their powers in isolation, but they are themselves best developed by constant interplay with the personal forces around them. If it is the business of a national system of education to make good the national defects, yet it is the lack, not of individual initiative, but of organised co-operation, that is being generally deplored in English life to-day. The question awaits an answer whether English public education has not its bias on the wrong side.

CHAPTER VIII.

Inspection and Internal examinations.

A.

As mentioned in the chapter on Inspecting Procedure the ordinary internal examinations held periodically in elementary schools do not receive as an index of the school's condition the attention from inspectors to which their importance entitles them. The reasons for this neglect, and for the attitude of inspectors towards these examinations, are worth some separate consideration.

Under favourable conditions periodical tests of classwork can convey trustworthy indications of the state and management of a school, thus serving to supplement the means at an inspector's disposal for estimating a school's worth. The worked answer papers of the pupils should indicate in any subject their standard of attainment, the intelligence with which they approach their subject, and—to some extent—the methods employed in teaching it. They may help towards determining the suitability of the syllabus—whether the course is rightly proportioned, whether it is too hard or too easy, too long or too short; and modifications of the syllabus may be based on information thus gained. The examination results can assist an inspector in forming a judgment on the success of the teaching, though they cannot of course acquaint him with the particular circumstances affecting that success, and so are a fallible sole instrument for measuring the capacity or industry of the teacher. The fairness and the standards of the marking can witness to the headmaster's interest and intelligence in direction, and the questions, by their quality and selection, to the instructional ideals, of the school.

If however the examination is to serve these purposes, certain conditions must be present. The examination must be recognised as a serious institution. Where it is generally lightly treated, and does not claim equal thought and care with other elements in a school's general conduct—the classification, the apportioning of the work, the time-table, the syllabuses, and the daily routine of teaching—then an investigation of it, for evidences of the headmaster's general aims and direction, is off the point; where the questions are framed to

exhibit what a pupil does, rather than to test what he should, know, where the marking is unduly liberal, or where the control of the class when under examination is careless, then the matter and the marking of the papers cease to give a measure of a pupil's real progress, or of the efficacy of the teaching, or of the adequacy of the syllabus.

But unfortunately these examinations in English elementary schools seem to have been involved in a vicious circle. Inspectors have not taken them as serious aids to school evaluation because they have not been so taken in the schools themselves, and the schools have not taken them seriously when they have not been expected to do so. A judgment upon the conduct of the examinations has not contributed its due share to the inspector's judgment upon the school as a whole. The historical fact is that with the abolition of the inspector's public examination in the nineties the examination tradition persisted in the shape of internal examinations conducted, more or less formally, by the head teacher. But it was the ghost of the real thing: the motive—material rewards—to make it an efficient and substantial school fact had disappeared. One extreme was exchanged for another—the public examination had been the all-in-all of school endeavour, the internal examination was likely to lapse into a casual incident of school routine. This danger indeed did not go unnoticed by the Department at Whitehall, and in default of the written evidence of the school's progress shown by the public examination the teachers were encouraged to maintain, and the inspectors to take advantage of, a number of records and registers of the school's doings—special care was to be taken over time-tables, and syllabuses, and progress records and reports; and from time to time, though the Code mostly was silent, the 'Suggestions for the consideration of Teachers' made various recommendations with regard to periodical examinations within the school. Syllabuses and time-tables are to-day regularly supervised—and signed—by both the local and the Board's educational officers (and this is usually, though not universally, done on the spot where the circumstances can be ascertained), but as yet there has been no methodical or sustained effort to reform the examinations or to control them; their possibilities both as an aid in inspection and as a piece of school machinery, remain unexploited, and though the head teachers of some larger schools in particular have found in well conducted examinations an expedient for measuring progress where others were beyond their compass, generally speaking the internal examination has

suffered from neglect. In certain areas however fresh interest has been aroused in the subject, and a movement towards reinstating the examination may be anticipated. At any rate separate investigations in two large and important divisions have revealed present deficiencies, a prelude to remedy; and, as internal examinations take a prominent place in the economy of secondary schools in India as a means for determining pupil's promotions, these deficiencies may repay the practical educationist's consideration.

B.

As a rule the examinations have been held too frequently. It is a question what reasonable object can be served, at least in ordinary circumstances, by holding formal examinations more than twice a year, though a class teacher may, and usually does, conduct more frequent informal tests of his own; indeed, he may be said to be testing the pupil's retention and intelligence all along. On the other hand formal examinations can easily be too frequent to be really well conducted or checked by the head teacher, consistently with the satisfactory performance of his many other duties; and it may be at once more practicable and more beneficial to concentrate upon one or two really searching and comprehensive tests, than to spend a greater aggregate of time over a number of less thorough examinations. The opinion is expressed for example that where a head teacher is in touch with his school and is constantly visiting the classes, one formal examination in the year should suffice; and it is probable that the London County Council—the most important local authority in England—will reduce the obligatory number to one. Time has been wasted also through superfluous sub-divisions of subjects (separate tests being given, for example, in writing, spelling, composition, literature, and grammar, or, in arithmetic, in 'sums,' mental arithmetic, practical arithmetic, mensuration, algebra, and even 'figuring'), and through allowing excessive time for doing the papers, and again by the headmaster's doing too much of the actual examining himself.

Though separate papers have been needlessly set upon subdivisions of subjects, the scope of the examination may at the same time be too narrow. The tendency has been to limit it to the three 'R's' (in accordance with the tradition of the 'public' examination), to exclude from test the 'practical' subjects—handwork, needlework, and domestic subjects, not

open to expeditious or written examination—and to neglect (namely, in science or geography) supplementing written with oral or practical tests. Where the scope is confined, and promotions of pupils or judgments upon the teacher's work are made dependent upon the evidence of the examination, subjects not examined upon are apt to be neglected in the teaching, and it is plain generally that if a subject deserves teaching at all, to omit it from examination is to make the measure of the pupil's intellectual progress untrustworthy because incomplete.

A common defect in examination papers is in the choice of questions. Proficiency in the art of setting examination papers is not lightly acquired—the questions have to be so framed, distributed and proportioned that memory, intelligence, and the power of application should all be exercised, there shall be scope for the weaker and chances for the stronger pupils, the foundations of the work as well as the nearer syllabus shall be included, and the syllabus as a whole shall be fairly evenly covered, and essentials shall be treated rather than mere details (the mere cramming of lists, rules, exceptions, synopses, tables, and outlines should not be called for); the paper shall require neither thoughtless haste nor long reflection for its complete answering, and the meaning of the questions shall be unmistakable. It appears that a good deal of care is often taken over the choice of questions, and it is quite likely that teachers in elementary schools in daily touch with children should know better what can be expected of them and how to frame questions to their requirements than more detached examiners examining over a wide area. Good head teachers—especially in large schools—often frame questions with the deliberate aim of influencing the teaching.

If the marks allotted on the worked examination papers are of themselves to assist an inspector towards estimating the work of the pupils, and indirectly the efficacy of the teaching, they should be awarded on an even scale from school to school, the marking should bear a clear relation to the merits of the papers, and the maxima possible to the value of the subjects in the curriculum. Investigation shows however that the standards have been irregular, haphazard, and as a rule unreasonably low, in some schools large numbers of pupils being given full, and very few less than half, marks. A flat rate of maxima is also common, so that an inspector has no indication of the relative importance attached in a school to the different subjects.

The conditions under which the papers are answered have often been neither strict nor definite. Where pupils are allow-

ed to collaborate, or to mingle during recesses before finishing a paper, or have the questions 'explained' to them beforehand, or are allowed unlimited time for their answers, the examination loses in practical value. With this kind of carelessness may be reckoned—for the exaggerated appearance of knowledge it produces—the actual preparation of pupils for the questions to be set or the confining of the questions to what the pupils have learnt most recently.

The deficiencies enumerated above as vitiating the internal examinations are not by any means universal. There is more individuality, and therefore greater variety of practice, in English than in Indan schools of the same grade. In some cases the internal examinations are carefully managed and adapted to useful purposes. The 'placing' of the pupil, for example, may depend, not only on his marks for written papers, but on such evidence of his industry and ability as is shown in his exercise books for the past period, or in records—monthly or weekly—kept by the teacher of the progress and behaviour of each pupil in his class. Interesting if debatable departures from common practice are those of examining a class by sample, or of excluding from test pupils who have no chance of promotion, of supplementing the ordinary examination with a 'silent study' exercise, in which for example the children in a top class are given three weeks and the use of any books or material they wish, for producing a full account of some country in Europe. There are instances of special tests of intelligent silent reading (*e.g.*, in the supplying of headings to paragraphs or the making of a mouse trap to directions), of special 'speed' tests in arithmetic, or of the use of atlases for solving problems in geography.

As regards delegation of authority in setting question papers, a headmaster may set one half of a paper and the class teacher the other, or teachers set papers for one another under his general check, or—a plan worth remembering—the papers for one class may be entrusted to the teacher of the class next above, into which the promoted pupils will be admitted. Some head teachers make good use of reports to parents, accompanying a statement of marks, and the following 'personal' note to the parent is said to have had good results. 'Will you please continue to do your best for your boy's welfare at school by sending him regularly and properly, by watching his progress, and taking an interest in his school life and work? Suggestions from you will be welcomed. You may call and

see the time-table and your boy's work at any time by giving previous notice. Our aim is to lead your child, as far as we can, to make the best of himself and his opportunities. We ask for your earnest co-operation to make the life of the school as helpful as possible.'

Any measure that may lead parents in India to regard an Anglo-Vernacular school as something more than a manufactory of matriculates is worth a trial.

C.

Some of the defects mentioned in the conduct of examinations have been due not merely to a general carelessness but rather to the diversion of the examination from other functions to that of basing on it a more or less formal report of the class's work and so of the teacher's success. The public examination ceased in 1895, and in the following years inspectors were advised officially that the worked examination papers of the pupils would 'afford further material for forming an opinion of the school,' and in the 'Suggestions' of 1905, the head teacher is encouraged 'to keep a record book containing brief entries of the quality of the work done throughout the school as tested by periodical examinations.' The head teacher's report, with the question papers and written answers, was to be kept for the information of the inspector. Where internal school examinations are regarded as primarily tests of the class teacher and not of the class, and the reports of the head teacher upon them as reports on the class teacher's capacity, and not upon the work done by the pupils, the examination is influenced accordingly. Easy questioning, high marking, special preparation, careless supervision, may be some of the natural results of a desire not to let the examination spoil the teacher's record. And the head teacher's reports taken on too uniformly favourable a colouring. The association with the internal examination of reports on the class's progress defeats in this case its own object, for the examination results on which they are based are misleading. 'The reports of the head teacher,' says a recent memorandum on the subject, 'if they are to be really useful, should indicate how far the schemes of instruction are working out successfully in practice, and should also suggest to the class-teacher possible modifications of method and aim or a new distribution of emphasis on certain points.' These purposes clearly cannot be secured except by frank statement and discussion of the subjects or parts of subjects in which

the work of the class has fallen below a reasonably high standard. It was, however, extremely rare to find reports which answer in any sense to this description. Sometimes they consisted of letters only:—

V. G. (Arithmetic and mental.)

V. G. Reading, composition, spelling, drawing.

V. F. Handwriting.

F. Grammar.

more commonly of a few words of commendation of the class-teacher or a statement expressing satisfaction at the work done:—

'A continues as an untiring, conscientious and intelligent worker, full of energy and zeal for the good of the children in every respect.'

'B has done brilliantly. There is no weak spot at all in the class.'

'C has carried on the work most successfully with the happiest results.'

'D is a very conscientious, hardworking, methodical modern teacher, ever seeking for improved methods of instruction, and the work of the class is in a very satisfactory state. The Composition, Handwriting, arrangement and neatness of all paper work have greatly improved, and special praise is due to the general intelligence of the children.'

'While the praise of the class-teacher's efforts was often deserved, study of the examination papers frequently showed various defects in the children's work which called for the attention of the head teacher and his staff, with a view to their improvement. Yet it was rare to find such points mentioned in the reports, and it is not going too far to say that in many schools it would be better to have no reports at all than those written at present They had little or no relation to the work actually done by the children, and for that reason were in no sense the means they should be of raising it to a higher level of efficiency.'

The following is an instance of a more discriminating type of comment where the educational purpose of the report had been kept in view:—

'In the old drill subjects of arithmetic and spelling we are both disappointed, and I am convinced that we cannot reasonably expect the class to cover our present arithmetic

Syllabus in the short time we allot to it. Next term we are easing it.'

'But I am not sure whether A has not fallen into the clever teacher's fault of relying too much on clever teaching and too little on persistent grind which alone can secure accurate arithmetic and correct spelling. It will be worth while to try a judicious mixture of the two.'

Other purposes that the internal examination can serve have been fairly generally ignored—in indicating the success of the pupils and the appropriateness of the syllabus, in helping to determine pupil's promotions, or in providing a stimulus in their work. For the last named purpose the class marks should be made known generally and as soon as possible. Cases in which they were not available till the pupils had left the class, or were not published at all, or in which the worked papers were never returned or shown to them, illustrate the neglect of this possible use.

D.

If the examination in England has been abused through becoming a test of the class teacher rather than of the class, the question is whether in India it does not suffer equally through being regarded too exclusively as a piece of machinery for determining pupils' promotions. The yearly promotion examination is a substantial fact in Indian schools, which claims no small share of the inspector's time and attention, but mainly for assuring its promotion value. There are also quarterly or 'house' examinations—making three or four examinations in the year—the results of which sometimes modify or check the findings of the promotion tests.

The conclusion is not to be drawn from the English experience that the questions, the worked papers, and the marking in these examinations cannot or should not assist an inspecting officer in his estimate of the conduct of the school as a whole or of the teaching in the respective classes; the warning to be gathered from both the English and the Indian experience is not against taking advantage of this particular institution to add to one's knowledge of the school and not against using it as one means of determining the promotion of pupils—it is rather against sacrificing to these or other subsidiary objects the prime purpose of testing the progress of the class. This is, and should remain, the most generally useful function of the inter-

nal examination, which may serve other purposes only provided it be not spoilt for this.

If evils follow, where the mere examination results are made a measure of a teacher's capacity, without considering the particular circumstances or giving due credit to qualities not connected with examinations, the consequences of using the examination simply—or mainly—as a machinery for promotion may be no less unfortunate. The questions, the marking, the preparation of the pupils, the details of the examination day, may be so ordered as to ensure a fair pass percentage, and these and other consequences can best be anticipated not by checking or controlling in the examination merely its efficiency for promotions, but by carefully investigating—at ordinary inspections or otherwise—its adequacy for its prime purpose, and by deliberately giving the examination its due importance in the general conduct of the school. This reinstatement effected, it is open to consider the subsidiary uses to which the examination may be put.

For their function as measuring the pupil's progress it may be asked for example whether in Indian schools formal examinations are not held too frequently, whether enough care is taken in choosing questions, in maintaining a proper standard in these and in the marking, in proportioning the maxima amongst the various papers, whether more account could not be taken of other than the day's examination records and of other than mere intellectual or paper proficiency; whether the subjects are too subdivided or whether each is given its due place, whether the papers are too long or too short, and lastly how much freedom can safely be allowed headmasters in arranging all such details for themselves. For after all a question of wide importance is not merely that of the efficiency of the examination for its immediate purpose, but also that of the degree to which immediate efficiency can be sacrificed in the future interests of education as a whole. For school authorities, like others, can only be expected to learn from experience if they are also permitted to make mistakes.

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